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Neglected Aspect of Graduate Instruction

BY LINDSAY ROGERS, ADJUNCT PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL SCIENCE IN UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

" . . . We have never expected the graduate schools to train for a career in literature; they have a distinctly different aim: to turn out teachers. The man who goes to a graduate school in order to become an author is patronizing the wrong shop."—"The Nation," May 14, 1908.

Such was the reply of "The Nation" to a correspondent's protest against what he considered the throttling by graduate schools of all creative literary work, and while some of those who obtain higher degrees may devote themselves exclusively, or as a side issue of academic life, to literature, research and expert work of various sorts, the statement above will, I think, be accepted without question. It was not challenged in the discussion to which the letter and editorial gave rise, and, surprisingly, no one pointed out that the methods used are neither in theory nor in fact adapted to fulfil the aim of training teachers—an inconsistency that is seldom remarked and rarely, if ever, stressed.

Graduate instruction in the United States, either implicitly or avowedly, is so conducted that the students are given a certain amount of information and are shown where to find a greater amount, the object being to approximate a complete disclosure of the sources of knowledge in a particular subject. Even the undergraduate lecture system, in part, at least, accomplishes this, but the graduate differs from the undergraduate work in that the students are expected to do more than absorb facts; they are shown the scientific methods of able professors in attacking and expounding particular problems. If the preparation of teachers is the aim of the instruction, the graduate student should be equipped not only to pass on the information which he has acquired from the lectures and collateral work, but to present it in such a way that his undergraduate students will easily comprehend and become eager to learn more. In this sense, graduate and undergraduate instruction differ in degree as well as in kind, but the advanced lectures, properly appreciated, are calculated to enable the student to acquire the information, and, in some measure, the knowledge of methods necessary for collegiate work.

But the other, perhaps the more important, and certainly the more distinctive, feature of graduate instruction is the training in research. The "indispensable adjunct to true university work" is the seminar, and its *raison d'être* is "to teach the student how to handle his material, and by interpretation or discovery to make a contribution to the store

of existing knowledge." Nowhere, however, in the symposium by graduate professors on the true function of the economic seminar, from which the quotations are taken, is there any mention of the fact that the vast majority of those trained in the seminar will be expected to conduct undergraduate classes. In short, seminary papers deal very largely with problems which are as yet unsolved; the students are trained in ascertaining and presenting new truths, and by means of the dissertation, that *sine qua non* of a Ph.D., they put the finishing touch to that process whose primary purpose is to train teachers. But this training is wholly in research, in scientific methods, in scholarly habits of thought—all, it is true, highly important for a successful teacher, yet all primarily designed to induce future productivity. A few of those who begin an academic career may be permitted, from the first, to present the results of original investigation; yet the majority, either for life, or as a preliminary to something else, must give instruction to college students, and nowhere in the scheme of graduate work that I have roughly outlined is this fact avowedly considered.

To be concrete, a man who takes his degree, in Political Economy, we will say, writes half a dozen seminary papers; he "reports on" a strike, a proposed feature of currency reform and a piece of social legislation pending at the State capital. In addition, he reads chapters from his dissertation, an able piece of work as such studies go, and the depository of some valuable information. For the student this piece of research should mean that his steps will be less faltering and his efforts more successful if shortly he essays to complete a more important work, or to codify one branch of knowledge more completely than do existing text-books. But where in this process has future undergraduate instruction been considered? Has the young doctor of philosophy ever been given an opportunity to lecture as he would to an elementary class? Has any of his work had the acknowledged purpose, not of training him in methods of research, but of making him better equipped to teach? Instead of an original seminary paper, has he ever been called upon to expound an adequately explored problem? Can he explain marginal utility, the various theories of interest, or the elements of public finance, so that a beginner can understand? My illustration is taken from a particular field of study, but my argument holds good in the natural sciences, and, although perhaps not so forcibly, in the languages.

It is, perhaps, unfair to support my criticism by reference to the purely professional schools, but in all cases the general purpose is certainly the same—to produce a company of trained workers—and the comparison is in some measure invited by the efforts which the professors are now making to approach the organization of a full-fledged profession. So it is perhaps permissible to point out that only graduate schools have neglected the aspect of instruction that I have been considering. In medicine, for example, the student acquires knowledge; what is more important, however, is to put this knowledge into practice, and he learns how, not by doing research, but in making people well. His dispensary and hospital training, under competent guidance, is a most important part of his course. At the law schools of the country, much attention is devoted to moot courts where the future lawyers meet and fight out disputed issues just as in the trial of a real cause. The same is true of theological instruction, and perhaps this analogy is closest, for both the clergyman and the teacher give the public not what it demands, but what is good for it. At the theological schools a man is prepared, among other things, to preach, and before he graduates he is taught the principles of preaching and given the opportunity to put them into practice. Even in the schools of journalism—a recent development of professional education—the students write “stories,” “build” head-lines, and practice actual newspaper work. But in graduate instruction, the aim being to train teachers, there is no effort made to do this; the student is given his degree as evidence of his fitness to teach, and neither the professor nor the student himself knows whether he can do it. To borrow the expressive, if inelegant, phrase used to describe experiments in dramatic production before provincial audiences prior to the metropolitan “first night,” there is no dog upon which the graduate student tries his abilities, and therein is a neglected aspect of his instruction.

Such is the problem by which, as a graduate student, I have been puzzled. A remedy I do not propose, and, above all, am not so rash as to imply that there should be any required study of the pedagogics of undergraduate work, as is the case in Europe. My point is simply that some time should be devoted to training the student in oral and extemporaneous discussion of elementary problems, and that, before turning him out into academic life, the professor should discover whether the student is able to teach. In the discussion of the economic seminar to which I have already referred, Professor Taussig stressed the fact that at Harvard the *reading* of papers is frowned upon; the students are desired to *talk*, but about original work that they have done. This is a tendency in the right direction; but certain it is, I think, that the seminars, discussion clubs, reading classes, however conducted, make little, if any, conscientious effort towards giving a student instruction and practice, similar to that which, in the strictly professional schools, is considered well nigh indispensable both for rounding out his training and enabling him to see, oftentimes, that a mistake has been made in his choice of a vocation.

President Butler's last report to the Columbia trustees comments on the prevalence of ineffective teaching, and attributes it, in part, “to the bad tradition which prevents the inspection and supervision of the work of young teachers by their elders.” “The youngest of instructors,” says President Butler, “is shut up in the classroom with a company of students and left to his own devices. The damage he may do in learning what teaching is all about is not frequently irreparable, but no older or more experienced head is at hand to counsel and direct him.” May we not go back farther and assign as the initial cause of this evil the methods of graduate instruction which do not train the student to teach, and do not ascertain whether he can do so?¹

How Far Does the High School Course in History Fit for the College History Course?

A High School View

BY HARRIET E. TUELL, HIGH SCHOOL, SOMERVILLE, MASSACHUSETTS.

The very fact that this subject has been chosen for discussion in an association of college and high school teachers marks a distinct advance in the status of high school history. Certainly the situation has changed since I was a college student. In those days, I am sure, no college professor thought of taking into account the possibility of previous training on the part of his pupils. However optimistic his temperament, he planned his elementary history course in the spirit of Pope's familiar beatitude: “Blessed is he that expects nothing, for he shall not be disappointed.” Now, the college pro-

fessors say that they expect definite results from the high school course, and they are here to-day to define those expectations. It is the mark of a new time, and, we hope, an earnest of better things to come.

An especially hopeful sign is the choice of a subject that holds the attention of teachers focussed on the work of the higher institutions rather than on the entrance examinations. Too long have we regarded the entrance examinations as an end in themselves. Teachers who have flattered themselves that they

¹ This article was printed in somewhat abridged form in “The Nation” for September 9, 1915, p. 327.

were preparing students for college have really had only the entrance examinations in mind. College professors, too, have been prone to gauge every proposed reform in the preparatory work by the single test: Is it subject to adequate examination? Yet the real aim of the schools is not to get students into college, but to fit them for the work after they get there.

The requirements for this work are complex and many-sided. For convenience we may group them under four heads as, informational, mechanical, disciplinary and inspirational. Of these various lines of preparation, the informational, which has hitherto received almost exclusive attention, perhaps shows least in the work of the college class. Was it Mohammed who said, "The calamity of knowledge is forgetfulness?" He was a true prophet, as every history teacher knows. Despite all the agonies of preparation, I doubt whether the painfully acquired information remains clear enough in the mind of the average freshman or sophomore so that he can use it in any definite and concrete way for the enrichment of his college work. This does not necessarily mean that the preliminary work is thrown away. I have found one college professor, at least, who held that it justified itself, even admitting that the knowledge retained in the mind was not definite enough to answer in any large way to the call of recitation or examination, since, even so, it contributes to the general background of intelligence which colors all newly acquired information. The boy who has taken a preliminary course in history must, it would seem, bring to his work far higher possibilities of reaction than the boy who has had no such experience. Although we may not hope to give to high school graduates wisdom and certain knowledge, we may, and I think we do, endow them in a measure with the gift of understanding.

More purely vocational work for the future student of history is preparation in the mechanics of history study—familiarity with the tools of the trade, with books and libraries and reference work of all sorts. Here a well-equipped school should save time otherwise wasted in useless blundering. Where the collateral reading is done in a well-selected library where pupils are trained to read in many books, the bewilderment of the beginner in college is reduced to a minimum. I am aware that one whose opinion we are all inclined to respect has recently pronounced against the whole system of required collateral reading, partly on the ground that schools will not make proper provision for it, but I believe that teachers who demand such facilities insistently enough will find them forthcoming. It has been my personal experience that others besides an unjust judge will yield to a woman "because of her importunity." In fact, at the present time the school library movement is growing by leaps and bounds. It may be true, indeed, as the critic above referred to has said, that "scarcely a baker's dozen of the high schools of New England possess anything that might fairly be

called an adequate school library,"¹ but his assumption that similar conditions prevail elsewhere is not borne out by the facts. In a recent investigation of high school libraries conducted by a committee of the National Education Association, no single section of the country, save only the South, made so poor a showing as New England. In Boston, for instance, one high school of a thousand pupils spends annually \$50 for library books; another school \$20. In one school only does the expenditure for the purpose reach the moderately respectable sum of \$200 to \$400. In New York City, on the other hand, the annual appropriation varies in different schools from \$250 to \$800. Rochester spends each year \$750, and Albany for high and elementary schools together \$1,000. In the far west there is even more generosity, Los Angeles spending for libraries from \$600 to \$2,000, according to the need, while Portland, Oregon, started the library movement for two high schools with an appropriation of \$10,000 a year for the first two years.

In other sections of the country, then, the interest in school libraries is genuine enough to loosen the purse-strings. If New England is behind the procession, it would seem to be the duty of history teachers to provide a remedy rather than to give up the game as lost. Moreover, teachers are not limited to the possibilities of school libraries alone. Public libraries, county libraries, state library commissions and state boards of education are all showing a disposition to help. In Somerville we have within a year inaugurated a system which is, I believe, new in this State, but which is in successful operation in other parts of the country. We have a school librarian, who is also one of the public library staff, and whose salary is partly paid from the school fund and partly from the library fund. She is a trained librarian with previous experience in college libraries. In the morning at the school, and in the afternoon at the public library she is at the service of teachers and pupils. She also gives definite instruction in methods of using a library, and aims not only to give help in specific instances, but to teach pupils to help themselves. With such assistance I see no reason why the college freshman should not go to the college library as to a familiar hunting ground, of which he is prepared to take fullest advantage.

The disciplinary value of collateral reading, as of all history study, depends altogether on how it is done, and how carefully it is supervised by the teacher. Where young pupils are turned loose into a library without definite guidance, they may get certain elements of a liberal education from the mere handling of many books and becoming wonted to their use; they cannot fail also to get some dim idea of the richness and variety of historical literature from even a superficial acquaintance with its stores; but if this were the only gain, it might be questioned whether it were worth the cost. The practice of col-

¹ "College Entrance Requirements in History, in Theory and Practice," William A. MacDonald. "Education," June, 1914, p. 621.

lateral reading really has a more definite mission. Where careful references are given and the reading thus assigned is made the basis of definite class discussion, where pupils are trained to take notes from various books and combine them into a logical whole, the disciplinary value of the exercise is incalculable. Such study is the only sure preventive against parrot recitations and thoughtless lip-service. It trains in the student the faculty for seizing the vital point in a discussion, and ranging lesser points around it, which will be of good service in the lecture-room as well as in the library. Many secondary school teachers think formal lectures unsuited to young pupils, and grudge the time that would be required for special training in taking lecture notes. But, without such definite preparation for lecture work, the pupil who has learned to report what he has read should not find it difficult to report what he has heard. The ultimate end of the library work is to send to college boys who can say with Marcus Aurelius, "I learned to read carefully and never to be satisfied with the superficial understanding of a book." If the high school graduates can take with them all that this implies of mental discipline and moral sincerity, they may well, like the Stoic Emperor, thank the gods for good teachers.

In addition to understanding minds, mechanical skill, and trained logical faculties, the history course should cherish and develop in the boys and girls those "radiant morning visions" that give zest to study. This, which we may call the inspirational motif in history teaching is the most difficult and the most important part of the work. It is also the point on which the schools have received the severest criticism. Eight only of the students who replied to our questions claimed that the history course in the high school had aroused interest in the subject. You will remember that one of the speakers at our last meeting intimated that university students who came to their work without previous training sometimes actually had the advantage over those who had taken the high school course, since they brought to the work "a freshness of interest sometimes lost in the more perfunctory work of the schools."² If his criticism is well founded, and I fear it is, the history course in the schools must fight for its life. Whatever the gain in other directions, if the preparation for college history deadens interest in the subject or fails to arouse such an interest, no time should be lost in coming to the search for ways in which the high school course can be improved.

For a revision of our ideals in preparatory work, the suggestions of the same speaker at our last meeting were so pertinent that I shall venture to repeat them as they have since been expressed in a personal letter. "If," he said, "our graduates who go straight from the university to their work as teachers in the schools could rid themselves of the easy illusion that the last thing which interested them in college should be the first thing to interest their pupils in the high schools; if they could have the sympathy

and the insight always to put themselves rather at the point of intellectual progress at which they find their pupils, and be content to ripen these toward the work of the colleges, opening vistas instead of stuffing with 'facts,' leaving an appetite instead of a satiety, I believe it would be better, not only for those college-ward bound, but for those also who go straight out into the world. A taste for history is better than what calls itself a knowledge of history; curiosity, sympathy, insight, are better than dates or philosophic dogmas. A modicum of information there must be, a secure outline of events and their relation in time and space. Without it one's having is only a series of emotions or a jelly of memories. The larger this modicum, the better—if only it be to the pupil so clearly *but* an outline, with vast vistas opening beyond—so clearly *but* an exploring, with whole realms left for individual opinion, speculation, demonstration—and if to the pupil the university or the world of affairs loom up as the field where lie opportunities for further study." I think we would all agree that if the school course in history is to be worth while, this awakening of interest and curiosity is the point on which the emphasis needs to be laid; even if necessary, at the expense of some of the purely informational training. Every obstacle that stands in the way should be removed, and many high school teachers would like to begin the work of reform with the greatest stumbling-block and stone of offence—namely, the present iniquitous, because ill-defined, college entrance requirement in history.

Just what is the college entrance requirement? I am sure I do not know. We all know how it stands in the college catalogues. It looks innocent enough. Any lazy boy is sure he can master it in a month. Yet, we have it on the authority of the man who has had most to do with testing it by the entrance examination, it includes ability to "tell the story," "write a full account," "show definite knowledge," "outline," "summarize," "compare," "discuss," "give reasons," "account for failure," "indicate important changes," "define," "give dates," "indicate locations on a map," etc., in the fields of political, military, constitutional, institutional, diplomatic, religious, literary, social, economic, industrial, cultural history, with incidental knowledge of biography, geography, archæology, chronology, etymology, colonization, expansion, and reform propaganda from Hammurabi's edicts to Roosevelt's."³ To adapt an old well-used illustration, this college entrance requirement reminds one of the cloud that appeared to Hamlet and Polonius. At one view, said Hamlet, "Methinks it is like a weasel." "It is backed like a weasel," said Polonius. But on another view, "Or like whale," quoth Hamlet. "Very like a whale," echoed Polonius.

Much has been written from the college point of view of the need for a more accurate and specific definition of the preparatory requirements, but none but a high school teacher who has suffered under the

² Professor George Lincoln Burr, of Cornell University.

³ "Adequate Tests in History," Herbert Darling Foster. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, April, 1914, p. 122.

present system can appreciate its full iniquity. He or she whose task it is to prepare a class for college has as guide only the vague, loosely-worded, statement of the college catalogue, supplemented by the examination questions of previous years. These last may be supposed to indicate in concrete form just what is expected. In fact, they indicate whole realms offered for study and a "required modicum of information" located by chance in any one of them. Since some at least of the pupils must stand or fall by the results of the examination, the teacher's attention is perforce fixed on the purely informational side of the training, and in that field the noble art of teaching is reduced to a guessing game, the conundrum being to locate the exact spot where the lightning will probably strike at the next examination. All four of the suggested fields of history are long, but the field of ancient history is especially long and broad and deep, a trackless wilderness, including much debatable ground. Here the pupil must "run and race," like the young Pheidippides. Not Athens alone awaits him, but Europe, Asia, Africa and the isles of the sea. Yet the whole field must be scratched over, lest haply some obscure fact, apparently safe hidden in the recesses of fine print or footnote, unexpectedly emerge into the limelight as a leading examination question. There is no time for reflection, no stopping for comparisons. The more conscientious the pupil, the more painstaking the teacher, the more nerve-racking the struggle. The difficulty is tremendously increased in some schools by the pernicious custom of cutting into two parts the time allotted to history giving a brief course the first year. Then a year of forgetfulness, then a rapid review in the third year. One not over-zealous pupil aptly expressed the outcome of such work. Asked to write an account of a journey in Greece, she said: "As I traveled, my mind was so occupied with the fine scenery and the rich historical associations by the way that I quite forgot to notice the names of the places we passed, and when I reached my journey's end I was so tired that I could not remember anything I had seen." A course conducted on this plan resembles nothing so much as a Cook's tour, and nothing so little as adequate preparation in history.

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE has recently published several able articles urging the standardizing of the preparatory course in the interest of more adequate tests in the entrance examination. Every argument brought forward to that end applies equally well to the needs of the elementary course in the colleges. Every evil of the present system militates against suitable preparation for college work, even more directly than it affects the entrance examination. If only, as has been suggested, the New England preparatory school teachers could have for their guidance some such syllabus and reading references as the New York teachers are accustomed to receive from the Board of Regents, their problem would be materially simplified. In New York the course is standardized by the State and the colleges can well give to the schools all possible freedom

within those limits. While apparently circumscribing the work of the preparatory school teachers, such a reform would really set them free. Their present obligation to an indefinite requirement is bondage worse than Egyptian slavery. It cuts off all initiative, all resourcefulness. I am aware that this has been said before. It has been said once, it has been said twice, it has been said three times. It is true. It should be iterated and reiterated until something more than talk comes out of it. When the required modicum of information is authoritatively stated and universally recognized as a standard; when the kind of training to be evolved from that material is well defined by conferences between school and college teachers then, and not till then, can the secondary schools really fit for college. Then we may hope that history will cease to be the boggy of the examination and the problem of the freshman year.

No discussion of the preparatory course is complete without some consideration of the efficiency of the preparatory teachers. I see that topic was not included in the questionnaire,⁴ perhaps owing to some feeling of delicacy on the part of its framers. But more than one of the replies indicates that, in the mind of the student, the high school teacher has already come to judgment, and if the next speaker does not express the college professor's view, we shall know that it is not because he has nothing to say on the subject. All discussions of educational problems come to the conclusion at last that the fault lies with the teacher. That has been the traditional attitude of the public through all the ages. So it was apparently in Athens in the time of Socrates. Such was the view of St. Augustine of Hippo. With what gloom and remorse he reviews his childish frailties; his invincible preference for ball-playing to the dull routine of two and two make four; his love for the story of the wooden horse and indifference to the drudgery of grammar; his distaste for Greek. All is piety and repentance till the happy thought comes to him "It was the teacher's fault." The method and not the boy was to blame; that is what any parent will tell you to-day. So it is quite in the natural order of things for the college students to question the ability of their high school teachers and there is a familiar ring to the plaint of the college professor: "If only the teachers could have sufficient sympathy and insight," or "The boy for whom Greece is cloudland may have been taught by a teacher for whom Greece was cloudland." Another, speaking quite frankly, says that required collateral reading does not pay because teachers are not prepared to handle it effectively, and another that the reason why boys do not know Greek history is that their former teachers were ignorant of it. The worst of it is, these statements are in a measure true. The elementary school teachers of history are not adequate to their task, the secondary school teachers do not make a success of theirs, and the college teachers do not turn out students fitted as teachers to repair the deficiency.

⁴ A questionnaire sent to history students in the colleges on which the discussion of the morning was based.

We feel that the colleges can do much for the improvement of the preparation for college by exerting their influence toward the establishment of a reasonable, generally accepted standard of efficiency for history teachers and then by fitting students to meet that requirement as teachers. The present wide gap between a public that demands too little and a college that demands too much is disastrous for teachers and pupils alike. We all know how widely the present standards vary. The Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts has one standard, which he has outlined for us here. Various committees of historical associations considering the certification of history teachers have also their standards, and individual college professors cherish still others. The school teachers, too, have their ideals, but in justice to them it should be remembered that the work in the high schools is done under very different conditions from those of the college, and should be judged accordingly. This fact is sometimes overlooked by our more fortunate brethren in the universities. For instance, two prominent professors of ancient history, impressed by the weakness in preparation shown by their elementary classes, have published articles in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, in which, either expressly or by implication, they revealed the standard by which they tested the preparedness of school teachers to give instruction in ancient history.⁵ Both agreed that a reading knowledge of Greek, French and German was absolutely essential, and in their bibliographical references they included also titles in Latin and Italian. Few, indeed, are the college graduates who by this measurement have taken even the initial steps towards preparation for history teaching. Indeed, until Greek studies are restored to something of their old popularity, it will be necessary to catch the prospective history teacher very young in order to start him on the right track. One of these writers then went on to give suggestions for handling the subject of Greek colonization in such a way as to interest a boy of fourteen. In the syllabus of the New England History Teachers' Association this topic is assigned one per cent. of the whole number of recitation periods in ancient history. On this subject, in addition to the standard Greek authorities, the writer made reference to about seventy books of reference in English, German, French, Latin and Italian. The first thought of one reader was that there was need also of a seventy-first—namely, a special history teacher's edition of Arnold Bennett's "How to Live on Twenty-four Hours a Day." However, since history teachers are supposed somehow to find time for study, a search for the seventy was in order. As teachers have not the gold of Cræsus, the public library is the only resource for expensive books. I tried this list of seventy in three places, in Milton,

Mass., a wealthy suburban town which prides itself on its library; in Somerville, Mass., which also has a good library for a city of its size, and in Boston. In Milton I found sixteen of the seventy, in Somerville twenty, and in the Boston Public Library, well known, I believe, as one of the best in the country, I found sixty-one. Only the few teachers, then, who have access to a large university library can hope to avail themselves thoroughly of the professor's suggestions, since teachers, like other people, are subject to the limitations of time and space. If this professor plans his elementary course on the assumption that his students have had this specialized training, he is forever doomed to disappointment at the results. We confess, however, that history teachers do not know as much as they ought, and we welcome the movement toward the standardizing of history teaching. Such a reform would tend to improve the quality of instruction in the schools. It might also serve to mitigate the disappointments of idealists who can locate every inlet and bay on the coast of Greece, but in whose thought the American high school is situated in Utopia.

Still another weakness of the present preparation in history can be corrected only through the good offices of the college professors. One of the most difficult tasks of the teacher in active service is to keep abreast of the times, and do all the thousand and one other things that are expected. We all know how fast written history changes. It sometimes seems to me that almost every historical character I present has changed complexion since I began to teach. Goldwin Smith in his day said that everyone had been whitewashed but Domitian and Caracalla. Research is constantly changing the old landmarks. Some teachers go stolidly on, teaching as they themselves were taught, unmindful if not unconscious of the shifting points of view. Others are caught by every wind of doctrine. In their classes the new Columbus and the true George Washington jostle any other character that has a perfectly new and up-to-date label. They do not discriminate between good and bad criticism. Truth to tell they cannot. They have not sufficient background to judge between the true and the false in the whole field of universal history which they have to teach. Too often in their eager desire to learn they follow after false prophets. Does a new historian come into the field, giving novel and fascinating views of Roman history, perhaps, teachers flock to hear him; they listen with such thrills as they have not felt since they first read Buckle. They know it is pretty, and they know it is art, but how far it is true they cannot judge. At any rate, they try to pass along the thrills, and the name of the new writer becomes a by-word in their classes. Then out speaks the author of some of their most cherished text-books, the guide and staff of the class-room, and declaims of "an enormous foreign fakir of ancient history" who comes to "traverse our country sounding the brass band of self-glorification amid the clashing of newspaper cymbals, while the people of culture grovel in the dust before him as though engaged in the orgiastic worship of some

⁵ "Two Periods of Greek Expansion," Henry A. Sill. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, April, 1914. "The Choice and Use of Books Relating to the History of Greece," George Willis Botsford. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, June, 1914.

Phrygian nature-god." ⁶ This does not sound like the language of restraint. Where does the truth lie? The teacher does not know. Her vision becomes distorted, and soon some college professor is complaining that pupils seem to lack a sense of the reality of history. Of the book reviews which should clear the situation, only those in American publications are available for the ordinary teacher. Foreign reviews are not accessible even if time could be given to their study. If some arrangement could be made whereby systematic regular reviews of current work in historical research, written by experts in each field, could be brought within the reach of the high school teacher, the educational effect would be far-reaching. We have now occasional addresses and magazine articles, so that we know what is going on in spots, but there are many gaps between. Such an arrangement would call for a degree of self-sacrifice on the part of the writers, but as a result students coming to college would no longer need to complain that they had to unlearn what they had been taught in the school. They would not only have a better knowledge of the facts of history so far as they are established; they would also reflect the influence of a historical habit of thought and the true spirit of historical scholarship.

To what extent, then, do history courses in school fit for the college history course? Only in a mod-

erate degree at present. The demands of the preparatory course pull one way, the demands of the college course another. The only hope of the schools, in the mind of one high school teacher at least, lies in a closer co-ordination of the two. The teachers have done their very best under the present conditions. They see "vast vistas opening beyond" to a region where their task and its requirements shall be so well-defined that no waste of energy need mar the efficiency of their work, but of themselves they are impotent. They place their whole reliance on the helping hand of the college professor.

Some years ago when the National Education Association met in Boston I was detailed to act as guide in the old Museum of Fine Arts. One afternoon I noticed a man walking about in a dazed fashion; so I went up to him and asked if there was any part of the exhibit in which he was especially interested, or anything he would like me to show him. His face brightened at once, he became alert and interested, and said, "Yes. Show me the way out of this place." I have come to think of him as a very fair type of the preparatory school teacher of history. We, too, are bewildered by the labyrinth that has been built for us. There is no straight road through the many openings. You, the college professors, are our guides in this journey. Show us the way out.⁷

A Pageant of the Middle Ages

BY MARY PRATT, LINCOLN SCHOOL, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Some weeks ago, as a member of a history class, I was assigned a special topic on the subject of "Motivation." Upon investigation, I found that this topic did not prove as appalling as it sounds. The bark of pedagogical terms is worse than their bite, and motivation is merely another way of saying dramatization, or the enacting of history instead of the repetition of the words of the book; etymologically, making history move. Toward the conclusion of the article I was reading, I forgot that it was a special topic and actually became interested in it, to the end that I found myself beginning to "motivate" a little in the interests of one of my own classes in history.

My 7A history classes had been rambling along in the period of the Middle Ages, studying amiably and aimlessly, reciting politely and perfunctorily. Said I to myself, "Why read and not practice? Let us motivate a bit for ourselves." To this end I labored during a whole Saturday and produced something which seemed to me in a sort of fashion to embody the high places, the main points, the chief characteristics of the thousand years which we include in the Middle Ages. So I called it "A Pageant of the

Middle Ages." There were forty-five characters. This number is very elastic, as new speeches may be written in or old ones omitted at will. Every child had a short speech, and carried a symbol to represent his niche in the scheme of things. The speeches were for instruction, the symbols for enlightenment. A regard for parents and purses dismissed at once the idea of costumes; they were not missed at all. The blessed imaginative mind of childhood, when unspoiled by theatres, can supply more elaborate costumes than mothers can concoct. The children made or assembled their various symbols, and the success of the pageant was due in some measure to their interest and enthusiasm in working up these details.

Enter the pageant to the slow, solemn strains of the Pilgrims' Chorus, played on an invisible Victrola (an anachronism concealed by a screen). It is a long procession of children, of ages twelve to fourteen, dressed simply, in every-day clothes, no curls, no Sunday gowns on a solemn occasion like this. There is no smiling, only a dignified, careful onstepping, full of the seriousness of representing these momentous characters. First of all, some six feet ahead, comes a herald, bearing a trumpet whose pen-

⁶ "The Choice and Use of Books Relating to the History of Greece," George Willis Botsford. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, June, 1914, p. 171.

⁷ A paper read before the New England History Teacher's Association, Boston, Mass., October 24, 1914.

nant, downward-hanging, proclaims ominously, "By Order of the King." The herald announces the oncoming pageant, and bids ye be present, or "your head will be in forfeit to the King's Executioner." Then, slowly, the pageant proper. A girl bears a Norman castle, battlements, ramparts, moat, drawbridge, all made by herself out of white drawing paper. It is very noble. Her speech tells the place of the castle in the life of the times. In her train come the lords of the castle, bearing shields (made in the manual-training class, and painted with heraldic devices copied from a history); they bear also swords, and wear "ribbons gay for their ladies." Then come the ladies of the castle, one embroidering a tapestry, which she explains, another with handiwork. Then, suddenly, a peddler from the far east, with a bag full of laces and rare perfumes from the Orient; the ladies and their damsels hover near and buy his wares. Then the damsels, who tell of their lovers gone to war, their sports (one bears a falcon on her wrists); one quotes Gareth's oath. Following them, a page bearing his lord's sword on a cushion; an esquire, whom the lord knights; King Arthur's oath to his knights is given. Then more knights, who recite stirring verses from Tennyson; then a band of guildsmen, carrying the signs of their craft; then serfs, carrying "rude tools of wood;" then Crusaders, flaunting long white banners which bear the legend, "It is the will of God," between red crosses. They tell of their trips to the Holy Land. The castle group ends with two minstrels who enact very briefly the story of Richard's discovery through Blondel's song.



Then followed the Cathedral group. The Cathedral was a small Gothic model, Gothic enough to be accurate, childish enough not to seem forced. So must it be with all the symbols. Nothing must be too good, nor have a professional look. The Cath-

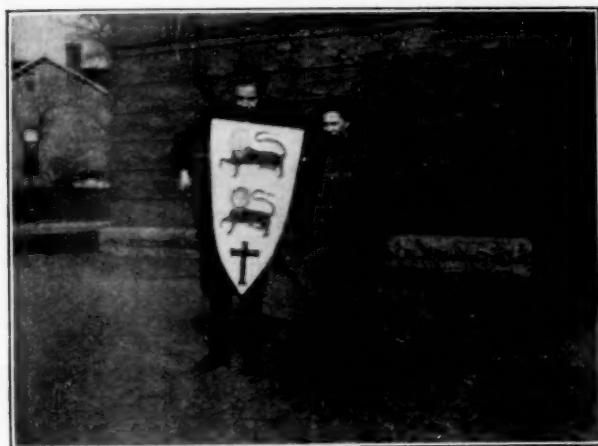


edral-girl made a speech about the place of the building at this time, what it stood for. Attending her were a Bishop, the Pope of Rome, the City of Rome, the town of Canterbury and Pilgrims, carrying staves and wearing Pilgrim emblems, as St. George and the Dragon and Canterbury bells, made of pasteboard and copied from pictures. Every person connected with the Cathedral or the Monastery wore a cross, except the Pilgrims. They were a very impressive sight and, I think, felt the solemnity of their parts. In fact, I have never seen children enter so fully into the spirit of the times and the idea as did these into the solemn grandeur of the Middle Ages.

Then came the Monastery, so large it must needs be carried by two. One of them described its functions. A group of monks followed, each with his cross and his open book, eyes prayerfully downcast. They held a conversation about the duties of monks—their vows, prayers, religious services, work among the poor, agriculture, making of books, etc. One displayed an illuminated missal. They were followed by nuns, who explained in the same way the life of the nunnery.

By this time the pageant had wended its way onward until it stretched in a long line across the front of a large hall. They stood there while "*Epilogue*" delivered the following, which, while not appealing as poetry, yet seemed to clinch things in the child-mind:

"We hope our pageant has not proved a mystery—
 We mean to show a thousand years of history,
 The time that's always called "The Middle Ages"—
 A time of monks and squires and serfs and sages;
 When cavaliers were brave, and warriors bold
 Fought battles, jousts and tournaments untold,
 When every knight wore colors for his maiden
 And from the fray returned with honors laden.
 When monks and nuns by candle-light would delve
 Into the past, and ancient lore unshelve,
 When kind old priests shed goodness all around
 And every wanderer a shelter found,
 When every bad knight was a wicked raider,
 And every good one turned into Crusader.
 Farewell. What people are these days of ours, remember,
 We owe somewhat to old-time knights and sages,
 To minstrels, monks, to each and every member—
 The fine, brave people of the Middle Ages.



Exeunt, solemn and slow, down center aisle, to strains of the Pilgrim's Chorus.

This pageant, while designed primarily for instruction to the children, proved both instructive and absorbing to the rest of the school, the teachers and the parents of the children. For two performances we had only four real rehearsals. No child has a long part, every child in the class may partake, and other classes will be interested in helping out. Any part may be omitted, shortened or enlarged without disturbing the unity of the whole. This period of history has become real, vital and full of meaning since we have given this pageant. The time required for it was about fifty minutes.

"The Pedagogical Seminary" for September, 1915, contains a brief, but interesting study on "Wandering Scholars" by Prof. M. W. Meyerhardt, of Clark University. The wandering scholar was an outgrowth of several phases of earlier medieval life—the wandering priests who dated as far back as the fifteenth century, the crusades, the wandering salesman and the traveling merchant, the relatively late foundation of the German universities which compelled the students of that land to travel far afield for their learning, and the highly specialized universities of the day. The author also considers their intellectual pursuits and their achievements, which were not inconsiderable.

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Interest has been keen during the last few years in pictorial representation of the historic past. Many teachers have constructed tableaux, plays and pageants from local material, and although such exhibitions may be crude, they have the marked advantage of appealing to the students and adults of the school vicinity. A considerable literature respecting the subject has appeared, a brief bibliography of which is printed below. The list was prepared from material furnished by the United States Bureau of Education, from "Sources of Information on Play and Recreation" (New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1915) and from other sources.—EDITOR.

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American Colonies and the British Empire

Colonial History, Old Style and New

BY W. T. ROOT, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

The Colonial Period of American history has ever been a field of wonderful attraction for historical workers. It has furnished countless themes and an almost exhaustless body of material; the results have been embodied in a wealth of historical literature. This literature in itself occupies an important place in the records of historiography. There is an old style of treatment of the period, and a new style, each illustrating the force of the familiar saying that each generation writes its history with interests and attitude furnished by the spirit of the times.

Among the older generation of historians there was a lack of balance and perspective, an inability to see historical relationship, a proneness to insularity and purpose. It is hardly to be expected that those who wrote in the generation of the American Revolution, when passions ran high and the spirit of separatism was dominant, would view the past calmly and broadly. Gordon and Ramsay on the Revolution displayed a pro-American bias;¹ Chalmers and Sted-

man a pro-British attitude.² Chalmers wrote to prove that the colonies had always been actuated by a conscious desire for independence, and Stedman tried to prove that English arms failed through the incompetence of Howe and Clinton. Hutchinson, Belknap, Trumbull and Proud penned histories of the separate States, still to be numbered among the foremost of local histories, but intensely provincial in character, explaining local history by local causes alone.³ John Marshall, the famed justice of strong federal sentiment, wrote a history of the colonies to do the prefatory service of laying a background for a life of Washington, the chief of nationalists.⁴ George Bancroft began his great work in the decade of the thirties, when the principles of

² George Chalmers, "Introd. to Revolt of Cols." (vol. I, 1782); Chas. Stedman, "Hist. Amer. War" (2 vols., 1794).

³ T. H. Hutchinson, "Hist. of Colony and Province of Mass." (2 vols., 1764, 1767); Jeremy Belknap, "Hist. of N. H." (3 vols., 1784-1813); Johnathan Trumbull, "Hist. of Conn. to 1764" (2 vols., 1818); Robert Proud, "Hist. of Pa." (2 vols., 1797-1798).

⁴ John Marshall, "Hist. of Cols." (1824).

¹ David Ramsay, "Amer. Rev." (2 vols., 1789); William Gordon, "Amer. War" (4 vols., 1788).

democracy, liberty and equality were utopian, and he saw in colonial history the providential unfolding and triumph of the forces of democracy against the tyranny of England.⁵ John Gordon Palfrey wrote at length on New England history to the glorification of Massachusetts theocracy,⁶ and Richard Hildreth desired to wipe away from his pages on the colonies "patriotic rouge" and was charged with doing less than justice to the Puritan.⁷

There is no fault to be found with the treatment of particular colonies or sections, or with the unfolding of the principles of democracy. Sectionalism and particularism were dominant forces in early as in later American history; the rise of an independent democratic republic was a fact of fundamental importance in world history. The fault was that the older historians unconsciously erected a sort of Monroe doctrine in history which considered the affairs of the outside world as unrelated to those of the colonies. A doctrine designed to guide the future of the nation guided the historians of the colonial era. They failed to appreciate the interrelationship of colony and colony, the similarities of their founding, the uniformity of their growth, and their indissoluble connection with Europe. When the imperial connection was brought into view, it was only when times of crisis demanded it, and then in a spirit of unfriendliness toward England. They seemed to forget that the Declaration of Independence was a political manifesto, which left unrevealed the British side of the case. Or they were apt to treat the colonies not for their own sake, viewing them as an introduction to national history, or else moved by a sort of historical Calvinism, they considered the colonies as predestined to independence and the principles of democracy foreordained to triumph. The colonists generally were not conscious of these high aims, nor were their speculative conceptions generally realized in practice.

The critical and dramatic years of the American Revolution have been generously treated in a rich literature. The picturesque age of discovery and exploration and the romantic days of early colonization have been established as classical periods. The three-quarters of a century from 1690 to 1765, from the close of one English revolution to the opening of another, has been a closed book, unattractive to historians because considered difficult to understand and void of the dramatic. Bancroft and Hildreth give the middle period of colonial history little space and inadequate treatment, Doyle allows four volumes to the period before 1714 and one to the next fifty years,⁸ and Fiske wrote charmingly of the early

period and Revolution, practically ignoring the intervening years.⁹ And yet these decades yield to no others in the colonial era in the picturesque and in social value. No period is of more fundamental importance in the rise of the American nation or the growth of the British Empire. It was the time when there were in process of creation the forces of union and separation, the issues, the philosophy and the leaders which made possible the disruption of one empire and the founding of another. In the neglect of eighteenth century colonial history lies the failure to understand the colonies in their broad relationships.

The influences of the older manner of treating the colonial era are not to be lightly estimated upon the content of American thought. There is little doubt that the older histories and text-books have intensified the inherent self-complacency and insularity of American thought and outlook, and prolonged the spirit of hostility toward England. It appears to have been, and to a great extent still is, the purpose of text-book writers and instructors to develop a spirit of patriotism at the sacrifice of truth, justice and breadth of view.

Time brings in its train new visions and interests which have revealed to the present historian forces and angles of observation unknown to past writers. The period of provincialism in national history from 1823 to 1880, when the thought and energy of the American people were preoccupied with internal problems, was followed by a period of external expansion. Colonies, commerce, sea-power, diplomacy, the essential elements of an imperialistic career, became pressing questions. The deflection in the course of present history turned students to a reconsideration of the past with new points of view. Admiral Mahan began his remarkable contributions on the influence of sea-power in history,¹⁰ and Henry Adams wrote with full appreciation of the foreign affairs of the United States during the Napoleonic era. In 1893 Professor Turner read a paper on the significance of the American frontier, and Mr. Beer published his monograph on the colonial policy of England in America.¹¹ Both were of signal importance, the one marking the beginning of a study of the colonizing activities of the United States in the Mississippi Valley, the other of the old colonies as phenomena of European expansion. Hard upon the issue of the Spanish war came college courses, articles and books on colonies, sea-power, diplomacy and world politics, expressive of the interest of the age. In the year of the war, Professor Osgood, of Columbia, and Andrews, now of Yale, in noteworthy papers pleaded the importance of studying the colonies in their imperial connection, of substituting unity and

⁵ Geo. Bancroft, "Hist. of U. S." (6 vols., last ed., 1888); "Atlantic Monthly," cii, 275.

⁶ J. G. Palfrey, "Hist. of New Eng." (5 vols., 1858-1864).

⁷ Richard Hildreth, "Hist. of U. S., 1492-1789" (3 vols., 1849); "No. Amer. Rev.," LXXIII, 411.

⁸ J. A. Doyle, "Eng. Cols. in Amer." (5 vols., 1882-1907).

⁹ John Fiske, "Historical Works" (1899-1900).

¹⁰ A. T. Mahan, "Influence Sea Power on Hist.," 1660-1783" (1890).

¹¹ F. J. Turner, "Significance of the Frontier," Amer. Hist. Asso. Report, 1893, 197; Beer, "Com. Pol. Eng. toward Cols.," Columbia College Studies, III, 1893.

breadth in the treatment of the colonies for the older partial and isolated views.¹²

The point of view of the historical worker is determined not alone by the bias of his time. Historical scholarship had advanced. The development of scientific methods in the weighing and analysis of historical evidence, the eager search for the material of history, the ultimate aim of eliciting truth and accuracy, all have done much to banish narrowness of attitude, purpose and partiality from the field of historical endeavor. The eager search for truth and accuracy was led far afield for the discovery of sources of information unknown or unavailable to older writers. Professor Andrews has performed a noteworthy service not only in emphasizing the need of a thorough exploitation of unutilized colonial records of large bulk in British archives, but also in the elaboration of guides furnishing the student a knowledge of the location, nature and extent of these sources.¹³ When this material has been subject to analysis, then colonial history will be rid of the isolation ascribed to it, and the attitude of hostility to the mother country will be changed. But the amount of these records is so vast, so little is available in the form of print and transcript, so much remains in original form, that the results have been meagre, embodied in articles, monographs and general works on special aspects or narrow periods. It will require years of diligent labor by pioneer investigators to blaze the trail and push back the frontier in preparation for the master historical builder in his task of correlating the parts and interpreting the whole of colonial-imperial history. Much has been done by historical societies of various kinds to publish the British colonial records, and the colonial documents published by the States contain the British sources. "The Calendar of State Papers, Colonial," 1574-1703, an undertaking of the British government, and the "Acts of the Privy Council, Colonial," 1613-1783, published at private expense, contain a wealth of material and reveal the importance of the imperial point of view.¹⁴ The introductions to these volumes are especially illuminating.

The history of America is inextricably interwoven with the civilization of Europe. The interrelation and interaction of the Old World and the New was a pervading and persistent factor in our history till the year of the Monroe doctrine. The colonies in the field of American history, the rise of an independent nation, have been generously treated. And there is no quarrel with the older patriotic historians, with all their faults, for comprehending the colonies

from within, for treating them as independent processes of evolution. It would be a serious mistake to treat the colonies as mere appendages of England, to try to explain colonial history largely from the standpoint of the mother country. On the other hand, there is much justification for treating the colonies as phenomena of European expansion. There is danger, however, that the new school of historians will run into the extreme of trying to explain colonial history entirely by external factors. The chief task of the historian is to weave together in proper balance and proportion the various factors, English, European and American, and their relations, whether he is interested in the rise of a new nation or the creation of an old empire.

There are a few general works which reflect the newer tendencies in the historical interpretation of the colonies. The slender volume by Andrews on the "Colonial Period" reveals in a capable way the unity and breadth of the era when the three factors, the colonies, England and the relations between them, are properly interwoven.¹⁵ Becker, in his "Beginnings of the American People," primarily an interpretation of the origins and growth of the colonies as an introduction to the history of the United States, knows equally well his American and European history.¹⁶ The several volumes in the "American Nation Series" on the colonial era do not fail to take into account the mother country and Europe.¹⁷ Egerton's "History of British Colonial Policy" devotes half a good-sized volume to the old colonies.¹⁸ Channing allots three of an eight-volume "History of the United States" to the colonial era, and while there are errors of omission and commission, they are due to the abundance of new material and the paucity of preliminary investigation of it.¹⁹ The history is the first extensive work to appreciate the imperial connection and to describe the neglected eighteenth century.

The requirements of space prohibit more than a limited survey of the colonies as part of the British empire prior to 1763. Attention will be given only to two aspects of the imperial relation, the commercial and political, and references will be made to the more prominent work done in these fields.

In no respect does colonial history belie the isolation ascribed to it, and exhibit greater scope than in the matter of commercial expansion. Commerce was the foundation of European interest in colonies, and commerce was the chief underlying factor in the economic life of the colonies. They were parts of a great commercial empire stretching from Hud-

¹² Amer. Hist. Asso. Reports, 1898, pp. 47-73; see also *ibid.*, 1902, I, 169, and 1908, I, 109.

¹³ Andrews and Davenport, "Guide to Mss. Materials for Hist. U. S. to 1783," in various Eng. libraries (1908); Andrews, same for the Public Record Office (2 vols., 1912-1914).

¹⁴ "Cal. State Papers, Col., 1574-1703" (16 vols., 1860-1913); "Acts Privy Council, Col., 1613-1783" (6 vols., 1908-1912).

¹⁵ C. M. Andrews, "Col. Period" (1912).

¹⁶ C. L. Becker, "Beginnings Amer. People" (1915).

¹⁷ Cheyney, "European Background;" Tyler, "Eng. in Amer.;" Andrews, "Col. Self-Gov't.;" Greene, "Prov. Amer."

¹⁸ H. E. Egerton, "Short Hist. Brit. Col. Pol." (2d ed., 1908).

¹⁹ Edw. Channing, "Hist. U. S., 1000-1789" (3 vols., 1905-1912).

son's Bay to the Caribbean Sea and including possessions in Asia and Africa. The economic pursuits of English subjects were not free; they were ordered by scores of parliamentary statutes and royal mandates in the interest of national strength and independence. On the other hand, the conditions of frontier life in America made it necessary for the colonies in order to prosper to exchange their extractive commodities for manufactured goods in a wide imperial and cosmopolitan trade. And whether the industry and commerce of the colonies were regulated by law or followed a natural bent, the economic outlook of the colonies was toward Europe. Yet the world-wide character of this commerce has been slighted and the British system of instruction has been considered only to be condemned as tyrannical. Mr. Beer in a notable series of volumes on British colonial policy and system has done great service in clearing away false notions and in establishing a proper attitude.²⁰ He has shown by thorough analysis and keen penetration that the commercial policy of England toward the colonies was the result of practical necessities, that there was a real interchange of services of great advantage to both sides. The commercial system was not a badge of servitude for the colonies. They grew strong and prosperous under the system, and as time went on, their commercial intercourse with England grew more closely united. Ashley in suggestive essays has pointed out the reciprocal advantages and normal character of Anglo-American trade relations.²¹ Callender's "Economic History of the United States," pp. 6-120, contains excellent discussions and well-selected extracts on various phases of colonial economy and English policy.²²

The Anglo-colonial relations were not without friction. The empire was composed of economic areas of radically divergent character, and a mercantilistic system framed to meet the needs of the whole had its advantages and disadvantages for the parts. There were prolonged conflicts between the English merchant and the colonial planter over credit transactions, over the regulation of specie and currency, over the imposition of tariff. These problems are as important in colonial history as the conflicts in national history between the North and the South over the tariff, or between the East and West over the currency. When we begin to study the colonies as the frontier of Europe, to see the interaction between England as a manufacturing and creditor section and the colonies as agricultural and debtor communities, then we shall come to have a real insight into the economic history of the colonies. Miss Lord's monograph portrays the resentment aroused in New England over the restrictions on the timber

trade and the West Indian commerce which interfered with the section's economic welfare.²³

Colonial commerce was far broader than an exchange between English and colonial ports. Andrews has pointed out in a very recent and suggestive article the nature of the cargoes carried, and traced the maze of ocean paths followed by colonial vessels in a wide intercolonial and international commerce.²⁴ He has likewise described the important part played by the colonies in the Anglo-French commercial rivalry, and Keith has shown to what extent colonial commerce provoked the union of England and Scotland.²⁵ Mims' book on the French sugar islands in the seventeenth century is the initial volume of a series designed to explain the voluminous and unknown trade between the northern English colonies and the French West Indies.²⁶ Our knowledge of colonial commerce in all its broad phases and reactions has been slighted or obscured until lately, and now it is still in a very tentative stage.

There was not only a great commercial empire, there was a political empire. The federal system of the United States with its distribution of political power is familiar to us; but little known is the fact that the old British empire was a federalized political structure. Much has been said and written of the great struggle in national history to harmonize the conflicting interests of the States and nation, little has been done to show that the chief staple of colonial constitutional history was the contest between the forces of home rule and imperialism. The spirit of separatism in the colonies was the result of the schism in English and European society. Newton has shown how colonial history is peculiarly a part of English history, how the colonial ventures of the Puritans founded a state in America and organized a party of revolt in England.²⁷ Faust and Ford have traced the conditions in Europe which sent many thousands of Germans and Scotsmen to English America with convictions as strong as those which moved the Puritan or Quaker.²⁸ This was not a normal expansion of European population; it was a movement of radical separation of vital importance for the future of the American nation and the British empire. The immigrants carried with them political and religious convictions not accepted in Europe, they fled into the wilderness of America to practice their ideals free from European pressure. But they

²⁰ G. L. Beer, "Origins Brit. Col. System" (1908); "Old Col. System," Part I (2 vols., 1912).

²¹ W. J. Ashley, "Essays Hist. and Econ.," pp. 309-360 (1900).

²² G. S. Callender, "Selections Econ. Hist. U. S." (1909).

²³ E. L. Lord, "Industrial Experiments," Johns Hopkins Studies, 1898; also M. S. Morris, "Col. Trade Md.," *ibid.*, XXXII, 1914.

²⁴ C. M. Andrews, "Col. Commerce," *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, XX, 43.

²⁵ C. M. Andrews, "Anglo-French Com. Rivalry," *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, XX, 539, 761; Theodore Keith, "Eng. and Scotland, 1603-1707" (1910).

²⁶ S. L. Mims, "Colbert's West India Policy" (1912).

²⁷ A. P. Newton, "Col. Activities of Eng. Puritans" (1914).

²⁸ A. B. Faust, "German Element in U. S." (2 vols., 1909); H. J. Ford, "Scotch-Irish in Amer." (1915).

were neither isolated or independent communities. Although particularistic in character and bent on self-direction, they were subject to the sovereign power in the English state. Their political growth was conditioned on royal grants of power and on the nature and extent of imperial control. Osgood's great work on the "American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century" is the first adequate, comprehensive and authoritative effort to bring into proper relief the various factors and forces—social, economic, local and imperial—in the interpretation of the institutional life of the colonies.²⁹ On the other side, Professor Andrews has described the organization, activities and policies of the British administrative bodies entrusted with colonial and commercial control prior to 1675.³⁰

The seventeenth century was the period when the colonies were left free to fashion their own life without great pressure from England; for, as Osgood has shown in his third volume, it was the century of imperial beginnings. The imperial political relation stands out clearly and intimately in the period from 1675 or 1690 to 1765. The chief institutional obstacle in the path of effective imperial control was the liberal colonial charters. Osgood and Kellogg have set to view the various forces and devices by which direct control by the crown was substituted for indirect control by patentees.³¹ This is a most significant fact, for during the eighteenth century in a score of colonies only four charters remained, of which two contained numerous provisions for royal control. Under royal commissions and instructions, and through numerous officials appointed directly or indirectly by royal authority, the will of the central government was enforced in a large majority of the colonies. Governors, councillors, judges, military and naval officers, land, Indian and revenue agents made up the royal appointees whose influence and power was felt in the whole circle of governmental activities in the colonies.

The charters were wiped away, royal government was substituted, but for all that the separatist temper of the population, the elements of distance, of wind and wave, remained as insuperable objects to imperial control. There are few more fascinating pages in the history of the colonies, or more important in the growth of American independence, than the quarrels of the eighteenth century between the representatives of colonial interests and popular government and the agents of imperial welfare and royal authority. This conflict was fought out in the colonies, for here the greater part of governmental functions were performed. Greene describes the persistent conflict between the provincial governors and the popular assemblies in which a silent revo-

lution was in process democratizing the province and harmonizing imperial and royal authority with local needs and desires.³² The Columbia school of writers, under the guidance of Professor Osgood, have written minutely of the constitutional conflicts in separate provinces.³³ Kimball has explained the contest between the forces of imperial centralization and colonial separatism in New England under the Stuarts, and Root has portrayed the interaction of popular, proprietary and imperial forces in Pennsylvania.³⁴

But imperial control did not begin and end with the work of the royal officials in the colonial service. The central government functioned in the broader fields of imperial and federal affairs. Parliament legislated for the colonies in a hundred statutes on matters of general imperial concern. The Crown and the various executive and administrative organs exercised broad powers in the affairs of war and diplomacy. The policies, procedure, powers, organization and relation to each other of the central institutions of government form important elements in the history of the colonies in the imperial connection. The "Guides," compiled by Andrews, contain instructive accounts of the great executive departments and the various administrative boards and officers in England concerned in the task of governing the colonies and empire.³⁵ Dickerson in full and expert manner has explained the organization, personnel and policies of the Board of Trade, the chief of the home offices concerned with colonial affairs.³⁶ And McIlwain has written a scholarly chapter on the difference of interpretation in England and the colonies over the extent of parliamentary power and the nature of the English constitution, expressive of the fact that both sides in the contest between home rule and centralization argued from the same law and precedent.³⁷

One of the most important functions of the central government was the adjustment of the manifold conflicting interests of a highly decentralized and federal empire. Many and bitter were the jealousies and quarrels among the colonies over boundaries, trade, finances, defence and Indian affairs. Frequent and prolonged were the conflicts between the colonists and proprietors over questions of land, revenue and power; between the various opposing religious sects over ecclesiastical affairs; and between the representatives of colonial and imperial interests at almost every point of contact. This work of

²⁹ E. B. Greene, "Prov. Gov." (2d ed., 1906).

³⁰ In Columbia Univ. Studies, Fry, N. H., XXIX, Fisher, Tanner, N. J., XXX, XLI; Mereness, Md.; Raper, "No. Car.;" W. R. Smith, "So. Car.;" C. W. Spencer, "Royal Gov't., N. Y.;" H. R. Spencer, "Constl. Conflict Mass."

³¹ E. Kimball, "Public Career Jos. Dudley" (1911); W. T. Root, "Rels. Pa. with Brit. Gov't." (1912).

³² See note 13.

³³ O. M. Dickerson, "Amer. Col. Gov't." (1912); M. P. Clarke, "Board of Trade," "Amer. Hist. Rev.," XVII, 17.

³⁴ C. H. McIlwain, "High Court Parl.," ch. V (1912).

²⁹ H. L. Osgood, "Amer. Cols. 17th Century" (3 vols., 1904-1907).

³⁰ C. M. Andrews, "Brit. Committees, Coms., etc.," Johns Hopkins Studies, XXVI.

³¹ L. P. Kellogg, "Amer. Col. Charter," Amer. Hist. Asso. Report, 1903, I.

harmonizing and adjustment was beneficial to the interests of the colonies, preserving the peace within the separate colonies and promoting the best interests of the colonies as parts of the empire. It consisted largely of sitting in judgment on colonial legislation by which local and particularistic needs and desires were expressed. Considerable work of an intensive nature has been done on the exercise of the royal check on colonial legislation.³⁸ Imperial control in this respect can hardly be considered a negligible factor when it is known that nearly five hundred laws were disallowed in the interests of the law, welfare and authority of the mother country.

And lastly, our traditional spirit of enmity toward British rule must be changed. It is fair to say that the conduct of the mother country was as much justified as the conduct of the colonies; the latter were as arbitrary as the former. It has been wrong to ascribe the right alone to the colonies; tyranny to England. Mr. Beer in his "British Colonial Policy, 1754-1765" has shown how refractory was the conduct of the colonies in the matter of trade and defence during the French and Indian War; he has

proven that the various measures of imperial reform passed at the close of the war were justified by the logic of events.³⁹ In general, the action of the home government upon colonial affairs was taken only after a full knowledge of the situation and the conditions involved. The colonial agents, the representatives of local interests in London, played an important role in the adjustment of colonial-imperial interests.⁴⁰

The intent is not to insist that colonial history is explained only or even chiefly from the English or imperial vantage point; that colonial history lies only in the field of English or European history. The plea is that the colonial period has been inadequately comprehended by the neglect to explain the operation of outside forces. The purpose is not to claim that English rule was not arbitrary, but to deny the common belief that England was consciously tyrannical, and that the colonies were entirely justified. The hope is that writers and teachers will avoid the usual tendency to defend or arraign, but will treat colonial history for its own sake in a judicial attitude and from every angle.

The Paterson Plan for a Federal Constitution

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES R. LINGLEY, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

If an exaggeration is ever permissible because its purpose is benign and because the degree of untruth is so obvious that no wayfaring fool need err therein, one may be allowed to contrast the Virginia and New Jersey plans for a new federal constitution in the following Macaulay-like antithesis. The limitations of the Virginia plan lay in its details, and its virtues in its fundamental purpose; while the defects of the New Jersey plan lay in its underlying theory, and its value in its specific provisions. With which well-guarded text, let us have freshly in mind the necessary facts concerning the two opposing theories which were presented to the Philadelphia Constitutional Convention of May, 1787.

As the result of a small gathering, in Annapolis, of delegates from several States who met to discuss mutual commercial interests, a report was sent to the several States, recommending that a convention meet in Philadelphia in the following May. Its purpose was outlined. It was "to render the Constitution of the Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union;" . . . and to report amendments for this purpose to Congress, which when "agreed to by them and afterwards confirmed by the Legislatures of every State," would become part of the Articles of Confederation. In passing, it may be well to emphasize three points in connection with this sugges-

tion of the Annapolis meeting. The members had no more legal right to recommend such a convention than any other citizens who chose to urge such an enterprise; the purpose was, ostensibly at least, to amend the existing Articles of Confederation, not to supersede them; and the amendments to be proposed were to go through the process laid down in the Articles themselves, namely, acceptance by Congress and by the Legislatures of *all* the States, before becoming valid constitutional law.

The advice of the Annapolis group was taken by the State Legislatures.¹ Delegates were appointed and given credentials authorizing them to propose amendments to the Articles which should go through the regular forms before becoming parts of the Constitution.

Among the early arrivals at Philadelphia was the Virginia delegation, numbering among its members James Madison, one of the moving spirits of the Annapolis conference. In order to be quite prepared for the coming convention, these delegates met informally day by day and discussed the defects of the Articles and the best methods of overcoming them. On the development of opinion in this group and among others who came into contact with it, George Mason has thrown a small beam of light.

³⁸ On appeals from the colonial courts to the Privy Council, see C. M. Andrews, "Yale Review," 1894; H. D. Hazeltine, "Amer. Hist. Asso. Report," 1894; Schlesinger, "Pol. Science Quar.," XXVIII. On the review of colonial legislation, E. B. Russell, "Columbia Univ. Studies," LXIV; C. M. Andrews, "Amer. Antiq. Soc., Proc.," Oct., 1914.

³⁹ G. L. Beer, "Brit. Col. Pol., 1754-65" (1907); see also Black, "Attitude Md. toward War in Canada," Johns Hopkins Studies, X, and E. I. McCormac, "Opposition to Imperial Authority," Univ. Cal. Pub.

⁴⁰ E. P. Tanner, "Col. Agencies," "Pol. Science Quar.," XVI.

¹ Except that Rhode Island was never represented.

The prevalent idea, he says, seems to be "a total alteration of the present federal system, and substituting a great national council or parliament, consisting of two branches, . . ." in place of the former unicameral legislature composed of state delegations voting as units.

Just how great a part Madison had in transforming the underlying purpose of the convention from that published by the Annapolis conference, to this new and quite different one, is a matter of conjecture. It is a matter of speculation also whether the leaders had such a change in the background of their consciousness when the Annapolis call was issued. At any rate, to have given any inkling of the fact that the convention was to be called for one purpose and to be started straightway on another would have been equivalent to planning a complete fiasco. Public opinion would not have tolerated any meeting whose avowed purpose was setting aside the Articles. In other words Madison and his colleagues had, intentionally or not, engineered a clever *coup d'état* without which the convention would have been restricted to a mere revision of the Articles. It was a piece of strategy² of the sort that is called big-visioned statesmanship when public opinion sustains it, and political trickery when it fails.

When, at last, a sufficient number of delegates had appeared, the Virginia plan was presented for discussion. This involved, as Mason had indicated, setting aside the Articles of Confederation and substituting a form of central government whose theory should be entirely new. For some time a debate on the plan occupied the center of the stage. The delegates who still desired to carry out their instructions grew more and more restless. Their dissatisfaction breaks out on the surface of the Journal of the Convention on June 14. On that date, William Paterson, of New Jersey, observed that it was the wish of several deputations to have further time to contemplate the plan already presented, and "to digest one purely federal." He hoped to have such a plan ready by next day.³ It then appeared that delegates from Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland⁴ had prepared a rough set of resolutions more in conformity to the Annapolis call, and the credentials drawn up by the States. On its presentation, the New Jersey or Paterson plan was referred to the Committee of the Whole, and the Virginia or Randolph plan was recommitted. This brought the two plans into mental juxtaposition and invited comparison and discussion.

Without, for the present, going into the details of the Virginia plan, it will be recalled that it provided for a national legislature, executive and judiciary. The Congress was to be composed of representatives chosen by the States in proportion to their population or taxes paid, and was to have powers so broad

and general in their scope that the small States feared complete annihilation. The supporters of the New Jersey plan gave two reasons for presenting their proposal, both rooted in the same soil. The first was cogently expressed by two of the New York delegates in their report to Governor Clinton: "The limited and well-defined powers under which we acted, and which could not, under any possible construction, embrace an idea of such magnitude, as to assent to a general constitution, in subversion of that of the state." The other reason was advanced particularly by Lansing and Paterson—that the people expected a series of amendments to the Articles, not a constitution built on a new theory, and would therefore be more likely to accept recommendations fashioned on the Paterson model.⁵

The soil in which these reasons were rooted has been hinted at—the fear, on the part of some, that the entity of the States might be destroyed under the operation of the Virginia plan. Although expressed in many ways and at many times, this idea is most satisfactorily presented for the present purpose in a few sentences from Madison's account of Hamilton's discussion of the subject.⁶ Speaking in the debate on the relative merits of the two plans, he expressed in somewhat obscure language the suggestion that the State governments were more costly and complicated than they were worth. Other delegates having taken up these remarks, Hamilton was somewhat put to it to explain exactly what he meant. He then said that "no boundary could be drawn between the National and State Legislatures; that the former must therefore have indefinite authority."⁷ "As States, he thought they ought to be abolished. But he admitted the necessity of leaving in them, subordinate jurisdictions."⁸

Under such circumstances, it is not difficult to guess three types of men who would rally under the New Jersey banner; men of the legal type who would feel that they must adhere rigidly to their instructions, those who wished to avoid a long, up-hill contest to gain public approval of an unexpected and novel form of government, and still others whose sentimental attachment to small States bade them adhere to the federal type of legislature, in which the importance of the State would receive adequate recognition.

Indeed, the convention was wrestling with that Samson of all constitutional problems, the accurate delineation of the boundary between the powers of national and particular legislatures. As clear-headed James Wilson put it, the general principle readily occurred to refer any subject confined in its nature to a particular State, to the government of that State; and to refer whatever in nature and operation extended beyond a particular State to the Federal Government. "The great difficulty, therefore, was the application of this general principle, for it was found

² Assuming that the change in purpose was consciously in the minds of the leaders.

³ Farrand, "Records of the Federal Convention," I, 240.

⁴ Ibid, I, 242, n; III, 178-9.

⁵ Farrand, *op. cit.*, III, 245; I, 249-250, 258.

⁶ Ibid, I, 287.

⁷ Ibid, I, 323.

⁸ Ibid, I, 323.

impracticable to enumerate and distinguish the various objects to which it extended. . . . " The question whether or not the line is yet definitely drawn may well be left until Italian lynchings in New Orleans and California-Japan controversies are things of the remote past.⁹

The debate over the relative merits of the two plans continued until June 19, when the sentiments of the delegates were tested by a motion to "amend" the Articles. The motion was lost, four States to six, with one State divided. The consideration of Paterson's first proposition was then postponed by a vote of nine States to two, after which the Virginia plan was again made the center of the work. Later, when the committee of detail was putting together the disjointed parts of the Constitution, the Paterson plan was referred to it, and some parts of the plan appear in the final document.¹⁰

In view of the high estimate generally placed on the value of the Virginia plan as compared with that presented by Paterson, the latter contains some surprising virtues. This is not so true of the executive department, in which both plans provided for election by the Legislature, with ineligibility after a single term. The Virginia plan was the better in planning for a single officer, where the Paterson scheme provided for an executive council; but the latter contemplated some method of impeachment—although, to be sure, a clumsy one.¹¹ The Virginia plan, again, proposed a clumsy veto system, by which the executive and a "convenient number" of the judiciary should compose a council of revision. The dissent of this council was to amount to a rejection unless the act was again passed by Congress. And since the national legislature was to have power to negative all laws passed by the States in contravention of the Constitution the council of revision was to be given authority to suspend such a congressional negative unless confirmed by a majority (whose size was left indefinite) of each branch.¹²

When one compares the powers of Congress under the two systems, the value of the details of the Paterson plan appears. The Virginia insistence upon a congress of two houses with representation based on population or taxes was undoubtedly far wiser than the federal congress which the small States desired. But under the Virginia plan Congress was to have power to legislate in all cases in which the separate States were incompetent (good general theory, but not over-helpful in details), or in which "the harmony of the United States may be interrupted by the exercise of individual legislation. . . ." The Paterson plan was more specific, giving Congress exactly the powers which experience under the Arti-

cles had shown to be needed, namely, complete authority over the passage of revenue measures, such as those levying duties, stamp taxes and postage, as well as requisitions. The Paterson plan also foreshadowed the Constitution in its well-worded authorization "to pass Acts for the regulation of trade and commerce, as well with foreign nations as with each other." Both plans authorized the use of the forces of the Union to compel the States to adhere to their obligations—in the face of which it is somewhat strange that no similar clause appears in the final Constitution.

Possibly the most notable contribution of the small State plan lies in the following: ". . . All Acts of the United States in Congress made by virtue and in pursuance of the powers . . . vested in them, and all Treaties made and ratified under the authority of the United States shall be the supreme law of the respective States, . . . and the Judiciary of the several States shall be bound thereby in their decisions, anything in the respective laws of the Individual States to the contrary notwithstanding." Professor McLaughlin, calling attention to the importance of this clause in the Constitution, has well said that "without it the whole system would be unwieldy, if not impracticable. Draw out this particular bolt, and the machinery falls to pieces."¹³

The conclusion of the whole matter is soon stated. The Virginia plan contemplated an entirely new system of government, and sketched, without details, the outline of the projected scheme. The Paterson plan was designed to contribute new details to the existing system, and actually did contribute some of the most needed parts of our present Constitution. Both plans show clearly that men of diverse opinions were convinced that large powers must be granted Congress. In a word, the "Critical Period" was at an end. It is worthy of mention that Paterson himself and three of the remaining four delegates from New Jersey signed the completed Constitution.

As a working instrument, the Paterson plan would not have been so bad as it has sometimes been painted. It would have corrected the most obvious defects of the Articles, lack of power to obtain revenue and control foreign commerce. Without doubt funds would have been raised through import duties, as was eventually done when the Constitution was put into effect. Difficulties with England and France over trade could have been handled under the commerce clause. The coercion provision would have taken care of whiskey rebellions. Sooner or later, however, it would have been necessary to pass amendments in the direction pointed out by the Virginia plan, and the likelihood of a successful outcome of a second constitutional convention to bring about such a change would have depended on times and circumstances impossible to guess.

⁹ Farrand, *op. cit.*, III, 139-140.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, I, 281, 312-313; II, 98.

¹¹ The executive to be removable by Congress on application of a majority of the Governors of the States.

¹² Virginia plan, sections 6, 8, in Farrand, "Framing of the Constitution," 226-227.

¹³ "Confederation and Constitution," 247; cf., Paterson plan, section 6, in Farrand, "Framing of the Constitution," 232.

Suggestions for the Correlation of English and History

BY KATE M. MONRO, MORRIS HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

Efficiency is the cry of to-day no less in teaching than in shop-work, railroads, and department stores. To meet this insistent demand, we must correlate our studies more and more closely and sift from one every grain of matter that will increase the power of the other.

For this helpful exchange, no subjects in the high school course offer greater opportunities than English and history. The enjoyment and profit derived from either must be greatly affected by the amount of knowledge the pupil has of the other.

"History," an instructor of the subject once indignantly informed me, "is not the handmaid of English."

"Nor," might we return, "is English the handmaid of history."

Instead of considering one as the servant of the other, we must regard them as loyal supporters, each ready to be the handmaid of the other when need arises.

The most obvious means of correlation between English and history lies, of course, in the subject matter. As an illustration of this, note a few of the requirements for study in English: "Ivanhoe," "Lays of Ancient Rome," "The Odyssey," "Julius Caesar," the "Sir Roger de Coverley Papers," "A Tale of Two Cities," "Henry V," speeches of Washington, Lincoln, Webster, Burke. Can one imagine studying these intelligently without a historical background?

The opportunities, however, are just as numerous and the need just as urgent in history. Here literature, particularly poetry comes to the rescue, not so much for the sake of clearing away intellectual difficulties, as for the purpose of instilling warmth into the cold facts of history and of arousing an emotional, as well as an intellectual appreciation of a great man or of a brave deed. How much more, for instance does the life of Lincoln mean to the pupil who has been thrilled by "O Captain! My Captain!" or the heroism of the explorer, to those familiar with Joaquin Miller's inspired "Columbus!" Can the historical background of these poems ever again be a horror of cold facts to him whose imagination has carried him "Over the hills, under the dales, down pits and up peaks," with Browning's Pheidippides or "into the valley of death" with The Six Hundred?

Historical novels, essays, autobiographies, and books of travel for oral themes, or written reports in English may often be assigned with a view to vivifying the period pupils are studying in history. Thus home reading becomes of double value and interest. While the English teacher is thus enriching the history work, the history teacher should be

doing her share of correlating by emphasizing essentials of unity, clearness, neatness, punctuation, and the like. This interchange does much to impress upon students the relationship of the two subjects, to open up to them different points of view, and to inspire in them a much needed respect for accuracy and form. As history teachers are now breaking away from the dry-as-dust topics they once reveled in, they can do much to help correlation by giving subjects which require imagination as well as historical knowledge. Such themes as "My March with Hannibal," "A Day with Caesar," "A Visit to Pompeii," "An Englishman's Reminiscences of the Spanish Armada," "A French Soldier's Impressions of Napoleon," "My Experiences in London in the Age of Queen Anne," and letters from soldiers or friends supposed to be with famous generals,—all are excellent for both English and history compositions.

In oral work also the opportunities for correlation are innumerable. When the common faults of enunciation, position, pronunciation, and the like, are brought to a child's attention in two classes, they may be realized by him and corrected.

Outlines, also, offer a means of coöperation. In the history class a pupil learns to study from outlines, to gain from them a sense of proportion and logical order, and to appreciate their value. This training he should practice in English class, where he is taught that the backbone of a good theme is a good outline. If the same form of outlines is required by both departments, if history outlines are occasionally accepted as an exercise by the English teacher, if outlines noticeably poor in English are rejected by history teachers, then the idea of correlation may be understood by students and their attitude toward their work greatly improved.

Good spelling, clear-cut definitions, and well-stated summaries are other common aims of both departments, which should not fail to use such important means of coöperation. For instance, the spelling list of pupils studying ancient history should include such words as, archaic, archæology, philosopher, goddess, aggressions, plebeian, and phalanx. Some of the exercises on definitions in the English class might well be based on a list suggested by the history lesson. This would seldom be an infringement on the rights of the history teacher, who, as a matter of fact, rarely understands how many words on almost every page of the text book are meaningless to the child. Comparatively few pupils can give satisfactory definitions of even such oft-repeated words, as, democracy, republic, tyranny, despotism, mausoleum, and science. When asked for derivations, they are utterly ignorant. If the history teacher would point out, as he comes to them, the derivations of interest-

ing words, he would be rendering a great service. The boy whose attention is called to the derivation of even a few interesting words, such as chronology, heptarchy, lyric, cuneiform, patricians, agrarian, and volcano, will not fail to be more alive to the significance and to the fascination of words.

Debates are another means of coöperation. Every wide-awake history class finds many subjects for discussion which might well be used for prepared debates. The interest aroused by this method is often great enough to stir the sluggard from his accustomed indifference.

Assembly entertainments in which the English department gives programs on heroes of history celebrated in English poetry, or the history department carries out exercises based on masterpieces of litera-

ture which relate to the period studied, also form pleasing means of correlation.

Frequent and intelligent use of a library offers another opportunity for English and history departments to work together. The utter helplessness of most people when confronted with card catalogues, periodical indexes, or other facilities of libraries is pathetic. The task of enlightenment is one that naturally falls upon English and history teachers, who should not be loathe to assume this important responsibility.

With so many interesting and beneficial means of coöperation, English and history departments should not hold aloof from each other, but should join hands for the sake of their own efficiency.

The Teaching of History in the Elementary School¹

BY JAMES A. WILGUS, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PLATTEVILLE, WIS.

The discussion of the subject of history in the grammar grades is really part of the larger question of history in the elementary school; and there are two general views that may be taken of the matter.

The first view may be called the older way of looking at the problem; and because it is older it is quite deeply rooted in practice, though it is not so firmly established as it was. This view proceeds along the notion that "what the child needs is to have the imagination quickened, and the memory stored with incidents and associations. It is not so necessary that there should be any definite plan or order in the acquisition of these interesting stories, great names, and important events. The child merely needs to have associations and memories of these; their arrangement will come later." Not only is this view the traditional one, it is what may be termed the incidental view; for in practice it makes history not a subject but only an incident in connection with work in reading and language, and without any attempt at organization or system from the viewpoint of history. There is no course in history as such, unless the work of the last two grades may be so construed. In these, there is a study of our country, which is an introduction to some of the facts of United States history and a recital of them. From my observation this work can not be considered an acquaintance with these facts or an understanding of them; but it is rather a matter of recollecting them as presented in a text. The work is abstract and formal, not concrete and vital or related to life.

The second view may be designated as the newer way of looking at the matter; and because it is newer it is struggling yet for more of a place in our public schools, though it is getting a firmer footing with advancing years; and it will get a fuller recognition

as some of the problems it raises are more definitely agreed upon by its advocates. This view starts from the same premise that the other one does, "that what the child needs is to have his imagination quickened," but instead of allowing this process to be a matter of pleasurable and interesting experience merely, it proceeds along the notion that the work should be directed to some specific end. In this view history becomes not an incident to reading and language but a feature of work through all the grades. It means a reasoned-out course which is systematized, articulated, and progressive. It is a view which finds its basis in the psychological development of the race and of the individual, and its justification in its relation to the fundamental aim of education and the practical needs of life. It is a view which would make history work informing, interpretative, and educative in the true meaning of these terms.

It is apparent from these statements that the newer way of looking at the subject of history in the grades is conceived to be the better way; and this is my opinion, not because the view is newer, but because it is one which recognizes, first, the value of history as a study in general, and second, its specific relation to the fundamental function of the public school. That this position may be made clear a few words of explanation are needed on these points.

Concerning the first, or the value of history as a study, so much has been written and so generally agreed upon that a mere statement is deemed sufficient. The study of history when intelligently and properly prosecuted has a definite mental, moral, social, cultural, and practical value which does not need to be elaborated here. As to the second, or the general function of the public school and the place of history in connection with this function, something more than a mere statement is needed. Considered historically, the modern public school came into being because the people began to feel the need of education to give them a place in life and so-

¹ Reprinted from the "Educational Review," New York, February, 1915. Copyright, 1915, by Educational Review Publishing Co.

ciety. Before this time, when the masses were serfs or worse, education such as it was, belonged to the classes—royalty, nobility, knights, clergy, money-lenders and others. This advantage gave them a station in life which was an exclusive and aristocratic one. But this old order of society could not stand against the decline of feudalism, the development of commerce, the growth of free cities and the rise of the "third estate," which finally opened the doors of life and opportunity to a place for the people. They demanded and have been getting ever since, a constantly widening, deepening, and varying education such as fits them to occupy the place in life and society that is theirs to-day in this modern world. It is the supreme business of the public school to furnish the people with that education which will give them a proper place in life; hence the two-fold function of the public school: first, to serve the individual, and second, to serve the State or society. Thus the public school to-day must open the door of opportunity and life, and keep it open, to the child, so that he may learn how to live and how to grow; that he may come to know himself and the world, and how to use himself and eventually to develop all his powers so as to make the most out of himself and to give the best he can to society and the times in which he lives. This brings new and difficult problems and varied attempts at solution. As times change, people's needs change and education must change to suit the needs of the people. As life becomes more complex and human interests become more varied, the public school becomes more burdened in its work; and though its function is unchanged, its organization and methods may need to be revolutionized or perhaps revolutionized to enable it to discharge its duty, and to fulfill its function. Hence the foregleam which we have of the future, wherein that education which is to be common to all will be more and more confined to the elementary public school or grades, because such a large proportion of the mass never goes into higher schools to stay any length of time; while that differentiation and diversification which is suited to the needs not of the whole mass but of sections of the mass will become more and more the dominant characteristic of the secondary public schools; and this because there are to-day so many classes, with different needs, among the masses. Instead, therefore, of the high schools commonly having a standardized, uniform course, which is primarily preparatory for entrance to college and to university, they will have courses suited to the various immediate life-needs of their constituents whose schooling can not or will not be pursued further.

Now what is the place which a study of history occupies in its relation to this conception of the function of the public school, particularly the elementary school? The purpose of history teaching in the grades is to introduce the boys and girls into the human world around them and behind them. From birth they have begun to sense the physical or material world in which they live, and each new experi-

ence or point of contact with it has been adding to their notion of it and of their place in it. In time they have a mass of impression, information, or experience—call it what you will—which is a foundation or apperceptive basis upon which to build and establish a knowledge of the physical or material world in which they live. Such understanding, however, is essentially the work of instruction by means of which experience becomes intelligible. Thus children come not merely to experience day and night, rain and snow, summer and winter, and other natural phenomena, but to comprehend these facts of their physical environment. They have "found" themselves, as it were, and thereafter they are able to make an intelligent ordering of their life in its relation to this material sphere of their existence.

But this physical world is only one world into which we are born and in which we live. The other world is in some ways the bigger world and the more important one. This world is the human world or society that envelops us as does the atmosphere of the natural world, but which also reaches back over the stretch of past time so as to touch everything and to hold in its embrace the priceless treasure of the accumulated experience of human life and activity. This world our children must come to know in a way similar to that of knowing the physical world about them, and for the same purpose; for their life activity to-day is more a matter of social relationship, dependence, and adjustment than it is of natural, physical environment.

The child begins his knowledge of this human world in the same way in which he does that of the physical. From birth he experiences certain associations and has certain points of contact with the human world immediately surrounding him. These experiences accumulate, but that accumulation is no more real knowledge than is the mass of experience he has with the physical world. It is, however, the starting point of his knowledge of the human world, and in the same way. Through instruction he learns to comprehend his experience and to interpret his life so as to "find" himself and to understand his existence in its relation to his human surroundings. The thousand and one facts of his daily life which he experiences are devoid of any other than a routine meaning to him until he comes to know how and why things are as they are; and this knowledge he can secure only through an adequate study of history. Hence if he is to make the most out of himself and to give the best he can to society, he must get an intelligent acquaintance with the human world of which he is a part, and learn as much as possible about what it is, how it came to be, his place in it, and his duty toward it.

Summarizing what has been said before passing on to the treatment of the rest of the subject, emphasis has been placed upon these things as fundamentals: (1) History study in the grammar grades must be discussed as a part of the larger question of history in the elementary school. (2) The function of the public school is to give the mass of the people a

station in life for their own benefit and for the good of the State. (3) The elementary school is the school where that education which needs to be common to all must be secured. (4) History has special value not only as a study in itself but also as related to this function of the public school; and (5) To secure this value fully there must be a definitely planned course in history throughout the grades.

What this course should be must now claim attention. Considerable pains have been taken to find out what the course now is in different places, and an examination has been made of the practice as it is in many of the cities of Wisconsin, in New York City and Chicago, and as outlined by the State departments of education in several of our States. It is not necessary or feasible to give here the data thus gathered, but it is quite variable and interesting. The cities usually have courses of their own constructed more or less along the lines of the older view mentioned in the beginning of this address; while the state manuals conform more or less closely to the recommendations in the report of the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association, which represents the newer view of history in the grades and is gradually making its way into the elementary schools. Though the course outlined by this committee is most excellent, there are some modifications which might be recommended both in the primary and the upper grades. But as we are concerned here only with the grammar grades, suggestions will be confined to them as follows:

Fifth Grade, the Ancient Orient, and Greece and Rome.

Sixth Grade, medieval life and times to the discovery of America.

Seventh Grade, the early Modern Age, European expansion, and American colonial life.

Eighth Grade, the new nation in the New World or our own country and its history since 1783. Also, very briefly, the new Europe, the new Africa, and the new Orient.

Such a course, on the face of it, may seem altogether too difficult for pupils of ten or eleven to fourteen or fifteen years of age; and no doubt it can easily be made so; but it is not inherently so. On the other hand, it can be brought entirely within the ability of pupils of these ages, and it would be most valuable to them.

In carrying out such a scheme the objects to be achieved and the purposes to be realized are important. First, no attempt should be made to fill the minds of the pupils with meaningless statements of facts and dates, either systematically arranged and tabulated, or disconnected and unassociated. That is not to be considered history teaching anywhere. The memory may need to be trained, but it is the understanding that is to be taught. Hence every effort should be made to give the boys and girls vivid pictures and abiding impressions of persons, places, deeds, ideas, etc., that will reveal to them the human world and life of other times, not standing alone and apart from life to-day, but intimately connected with

it by comparison and contrast. This calls for the constructive imagination and the developed historical sense, on the part of the teacher, but these are necessary in order that the children may be transported back to other times and places so as really to see and feel as the people they are studying about saw and felt. Thus the experience and feeling of the past may become a part of their experience and feeling, and not a matter of memory simply.

Second, the pupils should get a notion of development and progress in the human world of which they are a part. Their own span of life is as yet too limited for them to have experienced much of this in comparison with what will come later, yet they have a basis in this experience and observation for understanding what may be termed the fundamental laws of history, which are: (1) The law of change or movement, for the human world does not stand still; (2) the law of unity, for notwithstanding the ceaseless change in life, human events are linked together; (3) the law of development, for human progress is a matter of growth from age to age; and (4) the law of intelligible cause, for human relationships and achievements are not accidental, but spring from active forces both physical and spiritual. These are big facts of history, yet essentially they are simple ones, and children may not only be made to realize them, but they may be delightfully entertained by them and intensely interested in them; and they should have a consciousness of these features of the human world they are studying because they are so vital.

Third, the children should be imbued with the fact that history is a present reality and not merely a matter of past times. They should be made to see that history is humanity in action; it is the things that men do, or the life story of a people as seen in their achievements and creations. It includes not merely the wars and conquests, politics and government of a people, but their learning and literature, their art and architecture, their manners, customs and habits, their industries, their religion, their home life, their amusements, and all the rest of their activities. Therefore, the children should know that all these things which they see and experience in the present are the history of their time to be preserved for after-generations as these things of the past have been preserved for us to-day. Further, all these things of the present time are the outgrowth of the past, and not only can be traced down from the past, but are not to be really comprehended until they are thus explained. Here the pupils may find the solid evidence of historic unity in human affairs, and the teacher has abundant illustration for impressing upon the children's minds the notion of the fundamental laws of history before mentioned. Also this is the means by which current affairs are to be presented and studied in their proper setting and associations. All this can be accomplished in a way that is neither too difficult for the ability of young people nor beyond their comprehension.

Fourth, the children must get a general understand-

ing and appreciation of our own country's history. They ought to see our country's existence come about in the beginning as a feature in general human progress; and they ought to know in a very concrete and definite way what its distinguishing characteristics are in this respect. They should feel the difficulties and trials experienced by our forefathers in establishing their homes in the new world and in laying the foundations of this new nation. They should see how the descendants of these first settlers and others who have kept coming from Europe ever since, have increased in numbers, spread over the territory of the United States, developed its resources, and grown into the great nation of to-day with its wonderfully complex life and activity. They should also see what all this means to them and what are some of the fundamental duties devolving upon them as they become the active citizens of to-morrow.

And finally, the pupils should learn that while we have been developing in our own marvellous way, the other countries of the world have kept on making history too; and that humanity is getting more and more intimately associated all the time, so that much of what happens in our country concerns other people, and *vice versa*.

Though all these objects and purposes seem formidable as we think of children just entering their teens, it is because in describing them, it has been necessary to speak as an adult addressing adults; and because as teachers we need to become saturated with ideals of accomplishment in order to be masters of our task. In working with the children, however, we would not make the mistake of trying to give them an adult understanding of these things, but would constantly keep in mind the child's power of comprehension, and try only to get them started properly on the road to a correct adult understanding later. Therefore the facts that we would select for this work would be only those of child-mind caliber.

Now what is to be said of method? The conception entertained of this is, that method is something that results from a desire for achievement and develops with the effort at accomplishment of a given end. Hence it is a matter in which no arbitrary directions can be given, for it is specific and individual. However, there are some helpful suggestions that can be given as ideals or principles of practice. These may be regarded as psychological or pedagogical laws, and are: First, the fundamental law of impression, which is, that impression completes itself in expression. Give the children a chance to tell everything they see or read or hear about the work they are doing or the things they are studying. Have them tell less what they learn, over and over again, and come to it from new approaches and various angles so that they will know it from all sides, and their impressions become deep and permanent. This is drill, but it is not mechanical drill; instead it is intelligent drill—not a matter of dates, or names, or lists of acts and events, but outpour-

ings of mental pictures or images, impressions, comprehensions, contrasts and comparisons.

Second, the fundamental law of study, which is that of interest begetting effort and activity for achievement. Give the children a task to do—something definite to find out, a question to answer, a problem to solve, a topic to explain, a scene to describe or picture, a story to tell or write, an inference to draw, an observation to make, or an experience to relate, an outline to prepare, and other things of specific and like nature. Let these be within their ability and comprehension and they will be not only interested but also active in learning. In this work guide and direct the pupils in their efforts at the association, organization, interpretation, and presentation of historical experience, so that they will gain constantly in mental power and insight.

Third, the fundamental law of utility, which is the concrete application of knowledge to new situations and experiences. Teach the children to glean from their study, and to build up in their mind, principles or precepts which they may use in explaining or judging conduct as it reveals itself in the successive events they study, also as it may be evidenced in current happenings and in the future possibilities or probabilities of things. This will keep them on the *qui vive*, and train them in that art of all arts, the practical judgment and insight into human affairs which is so necessary to-day and in time to come if they would adjust themselves easily and safely to the currents and eddies and whirlpools of the modern human world.

If the children of the grades can be taught these fundamental things of life, and they can be, it is their due and our obligation; for the elementary school is the great common school where the masses are to get their schooling for life.

A variety of personal experiences in the great war are described in the "Atlantic Monthly" for Nov. .er. A French lieutenant, an American nurse, a British captain and the prefect of a French department recount in simple thrilling language their stories of scenes at "the front." Among the many accounts from the battlefields these are the most direct which have appeared in American publications.

GOING HOME ON A FURLOUGH.

"Now, children," asked the teacher of a class in United States history, "who can tell me what a furlough is?"

Several hands went up.

"Well, Noah," said the teacher to a fifteen-year-old pupil, "you may tell me what a furlough is."

"Why, it's a mule," answered Noah, with an air of confidence in himself.

The teacher could not refrain from laughing, and some of the pupils did likewise.

Noah blushed, but said, "I can prove it." Then turning the leaves of the history, he came to a picture of a soldier mounted on a mule, under which was printed these words:

"Going home on a furlough."—"Philippine Education."

Canadian History Next

To the Editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

The "practical" spirit of the times has invaded even the field of historical study, the term "practical" being interpreted of what is most vital and of most immediate usefulness. Acknowledging the full value of the past and the benefits of experience, and duly recognizing the contributions of present-day Europe to our welfare and happiness, we beg to ask for more than passing notice for another corner of historical study full of interest, vibrant with meaning, but overlooked by nearly all of our historical students. Recent times have seen an awakening of enthusiasm for Latin-America, prompted, perchance, by the commercial spirit. Nevertheless, the universities have set the pace, and a number of colleges have formulated courses of instruction. South America has come to its own.

To the north of us lies an empire more vast than our own continental area, three and three-quarter million square miles. Within these bounds dwell about eight million people. Already considerable cities have sprung up, notably Montreal with a half million inhabitants, Toronto with a third of a million, and Winnipeg with two hundred and thirty thousand. Civilization has done a flank march in Canada. From east to west migration has held its course, until now the two oceans are joined. This has been helped on by a wonderful series of transcontinental railways, of which four now span the Dominion. Of recent years unusual attractions have diverted traffic, notably the gold fever of the Yukon country and the grain fields of the Northwest. Seeing is believing. To attempt to picture the progress of the past decade throughout the northwest territories of Canada would bring down on the writer doubts of his veracity. Only those of us who live within sight and sound can know, and even we scarcely realize.

With these neighbors we have lived in peace unbroken for a hundred years. There is nothing between us more formidable than an occasional iron post or custom house. Not a garrison post for three thousand miles! Westward our empire has held its way, while Canadian conquest has extended northward even to the land of "little sticks."

Equally limitless are the natural resources of the country. The area of cultivated ground in 1913, produced, for example, 230,000,000 bushels of wheat, the largest item of Canadian agriculture. The total of agricultural products was in excess of half a billion dollars, and the dairy products totaled \$100,000,000.

The vast forests have not yet been despoiled, trapping and hunting are still productive within the bounds of the old Hudson Bay Empire. What this empire is yet to be when eight millions shall have become a hundred million and native resources shall have been adequately exploited, we cannot yet predict. In passing, let us hope our neighbors may be privileged to work out their destiny without interference or hindrance from any source whatsoever.

Here, too, are the finest playgrounds on the planet. Jungfrau and Matterhorn find their counterpart. Alpine peaks and lakes are indefinitely multiplied, and as the eye traverses the maze of smaller lakes, one is prompted to guess their number in the tens of thousands. Whoever would hold communion with nature will find her here wild, free, untrammled; "from the big dizzy mountains that

screen it, to the dead deathlike valleys below." Who would seek adventure can find it here. Great lakes that are at times roaring seas, rivers that are rolling floods, streams that stretch away for thousands of miles, running "God knows where."

This is the land of romance. One need only mention the name of Acadia to recall the story of Evangeline and all the sorry incidents that lie behind it. Parkman has passed over from history to the field of literature, yet he has opened up to the lay mind a wealth of legend unsurpassed. And here is history, too. From the old Hudson Bay days down to our present Northwest rangers, there is an unbroken line of heroes, none the less heroic for being less widely known. Canada has produced a race of men well worthy of the British name, such as Cartier, Selkirk, Mackenzie, Simpson, Laurier, MacDonald, Strathecona and their kind. And the materials are at hand. What John Richard Green has done for English history, Bryce¹ has wrought for Canada. The product of more than forty years of residence, keen observation, scholarly research, and a most readable style. Who would read further will do well to note by the same author, "History of the Hudson Bay Company" and "Selkirk Settlement." Smaller or more special are the books of Roberts,² Bourinot,³ Bradley,⁴ Prowse,⁵ Willson,⁶ Bryce,⁷ Begg⁸ and Munro.⁹ And these are a few among many. Who would read still deeper, let him consult the ten bulky volumes of Kingsford. Biographies also abound, sketches of such men as have been mentioned above.

We cannot enter into details here, but this is a field of vital interest and importance for us. Canada shares this continent with us, and with us will work out our common destiny. Who crosses the Rio Grande enters another world, a new order of things stretching southward to the Horn. To the north there is no such break. Were it not for customs and emigration officers, one scarce could tell when one had crossed the line. Closer acquaintance would increase mutual respect and confidence, reveal common interests, and effectually smother differences. It is little short of a crime to train up our youth in the knowledge of lands beyond the sea, and ignore, as we have done, a people so closely akin to us in blood and interests.

WALLACE N. STEARNS.

Fargo, North Dakota.

¹ Bryce, Dr. George, "A Short History of the English People." New and revised edition. Illustrated. London, 1914.

² "History of Canada."

³ "History of Canada," "How Canada is Governed."

⁴ "Making of Canada (1763-1815)," "Canada" (Home University Library), and "Fight with France for North America (1755-1760)."

⁵ "Newfoundland."

⁶ "Nova Scotia."

⁷ "Manitoba."

⁸ "British Columbia."

⁹ "Constitution of Canada."

Reports from The Historical Field

The History Teachers' Section of the New York State Teachers' Association will meet at Rochester, November 22 to 24. Dr. E. E. Slosson, literary editor of the "Independent," will speak upon "The Use of Periodicals in the Teaching of American History."

Photographs and lantern slides of the great European war have been prepared in large numbers by Messrs. York & Sons, 3 Emperor's Gate, South Kensington, London, S. W.

Leaflet No. 38 of the (English) Historical Association deals with Norman and Medieval London, being two papers read before the London Branch of the Association by Prof. F. M. Stenton and Mr. C. L. Kingsford. Copies can be procured from the secretary, Miss M. B. Curran, 22 Russell Square, W. C., London.

The A. J. Nystrom Co., of Chicago, has issued an elaborate catalogue of nearly 200 pages, describing the various maps and map appliances published and sold by the company. History teachers will find in this catalogue maps for almost every use.

"A Right of the States" is the title of an address delivered by Alfred B. Thom, of Washington, D. C., before the State Bar Association of Tennessee, in which the writer upholds the limitation by the United States Constitution of the States' control of interstate commerce. He urges a considerable extension of federal control in order that the interests of all the states may be equally conserved.

A comprehensive course of study for history in the grades is that organized under the direction of Miss Lida Lee Tall for the public schools of Baltimore County, Md. The entire course of study in all subjects is published in a large book of 653 pages. In this almost 200 pages are devoted to the subject of history. A more detailed analysis and criticism of the course will be given in a later number of the MAGAZINE.

"The Beginnings of Public Education in New England" is treated in a continued article in the June number of the "School Review," by Prof. Marcus W. Jernegan. The author gives quotations from many of the town and colony records illustrative of early schools; particularly showing the manner in which the schools were supported by their respective communities. Dr. Jernegan holds that in the earliest period of New England history, schools did not receive the public consideration which the church received, and that the Massachusetts Act of 1647 was an attempt to compel all the towns of a certain size to support schools similar to those which had been voluntarily established in a few towns.

"The Financial Administration of the Colony of Virginia," by Prof. Percy S. Flippin, of the Central University of Kentucky, constitutes No. 2 of Vol. XXXIII of the Johns Hopkins University Studies [Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 50 cents]. From manuscript material in England and Virginia, as well as from secondary works, the author has constructed an analytical account not only of the revenue and taxation system of the colony, but also of the administrative measures and officials by which financial legislation was enforced. The systems of internal and of external taxes are both treated and are described as being "adequate for meeting the expenses of the administration of the colony, and also for conserving, to some extent, the interests of Great Britain beyond the limits of the colony."

OHIO HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Ohio History Teachers' Association met at Columbus, O., on Thursday and Friday, October 21 and 22. The program included a joint meeting with the Ohio Valley Historical Association and four separate meetings devoted to the interests of history teachers. The program of these meetings was as follows: Thursday, October 21, at 3 p. m., address, "Changing Ideals and Methods in Teaching American History," Prof. Elbert J. Benton, Western Reserve University, Cleveland; address, "A New Tool in Education," Prof. S. C. Derby, Ohio State University, Columbus; Thursday, October 21, at 8 p. m., address, "What Our Teachers Are Doing in the Use of Aids to History Teaching," Mr. W. M. McGaughey, Central High School, Akron; address, "Some New Aids to the Teaching of History," Miss Grace H. Stivers, Steele High School, Dayton; address, "Illustrated Note Books," Principal Charles W. Gayman, Waite High School, Toledo; discussion. Friday, October 22, at 9.30 a. m., general subject, "The History of Ohio as Illustrative of Our National History;" discussion, Prof. J. E. Bradford, Miami University, Oxford; Miss Juliette Sessions, East High School, Columbus; Prof. Homer C. Hockett, Ohio State University, Columbus; Mr. Guy Detrick, High School, Bellefontaine; Mr. Frank W. Lease, High School, Salem; Mr. S. H. Watson, High School, East Liverpool. Friday, October 22, at 1.30 p. m., symposium, "The Present Status of History in Our Public Schools," Mr. Lamar T. Beman, East High School, Cleveland, representing the Cleveland schools; Mr. L. O. Lantis, North High School, Columbus, representing the Columbus schools; Mr. C. C. Barnes, High School, Marion, representing the Marion schools; Mrs. Arabella C. Dackerman, High School, Delaware, representing the Delaware schools; Mr. F. A. Tait, High School, Newark, representing the Newark schools; Mr. C. F. Brockway, High School, Mt. Vernon, representing the Mt. Vernon schools; Mr. J. B. Hughes, Marysville, representing the Marysville schools. There were also an automobile tour of Columbus, several receptions, luncheons and banquets.

The officers of the association are as follows: Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus, president; Miss Alice M. Rower, High School of Commerce, Cleveland, secretary; Wilmer C. Harris, Ohio State University, Columbus, treasurer; Miss Grace H. Stivers, Steele High School, Dayton, member of Executive Committee; William B. Guiteau, superintendent of public schools, Toledo, member of Executive Committee.

OHIO VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The ninth annual meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Association was held at Columbus, O., Thursday and Friday, October 21 and 22. The meeting opened with a joint session with the Ohio History Teachers' Association, after which there were five sessions held. The papers presented were as follows: "Fixing the Capital of Ohio," E. O. Randall, Columbus; "Woman Suffrage in the Constitutional Conventions of Ohio," D. C. Shilling, Professor of History, Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill.; "Political Effects of the Panic of 1837," R. C. McGrane, Cincinnati; "Early Religious Movements in Pittsburgh," Homer J. Webster, University of Pittsburgh; "Early Religious Movements in the Muskingum Valley," Prof. Clement L. Martzoff, Ohio University, Athens, O.; "Centennial Churches in the Miami Valley," J. E. Bradford, Professor of History, Miami University, Oxford, O.; "Early Religious Literature in the Ohio Valley," Mrs. Irene D. Cornwell, Cincinnati, O.; "Rise and Development of Various Religious Sects in Cincinnati from 1792 to 1840," Miriam Urbansky, Cincinnati,

O.; "Early Newspapers in the Virginias," Dr. Henry S. Green, State Historian and Archivist, Charleston, W. Va.; discussion, led by Prof. J. M. Callahan, University of West Virginia, Morgantown.

TEXAS BULLETIN.

"The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin" (Vol. 3, No. 3) contains three important papers. The first is a series of source readings in Texas history prepared by Prof. Eugene C. Barker, including source extracts dealing with the condition of Texas from 1831 to 1834 and other contemporary accounts of the settlement during those years. In the second article Mr. Wm. R. Manning gives a description of how schools affiliated with the University of Texas are examined upon their history work. Mr. Herbert Kellar, of the University of Minnesota, contributed a series of lists for professional libraries for teachers of history in secondary schools. These lists are arranged respectively for ancient history, medieval and modern history, English history and American history and civics. Under each one of these headings suggestions are given for teachers' libraries costing five dollars, ten dollars, twenty-five dollars, fifty dollars and one hundred dollars.

COLORADO HISTORY TEACHERS.

The Civics and History Section of the Colorado Teachers' Association will hold a session on Friday, November 5, in the East Side High School, Denver. Under the chairmanship of Mr. Ira F. Nestor, the following program will be carried out: "How I Teach History in the Grades," by Margaret M. Smith, of Denver, and Milo S. Whittaker, of Pueblo; "Relation of History to Sociology," by Gurdon R. Miller, of Greeley, and Jeanne Crosby, of Sterling; "The Study of Colorado History," by James F. Willard, of the University of Colorado, and Mark J. Sweaney, of Colorado Springs; and an informal address by Charles H. Judd, of the University of Chicago.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The New England History Teachers' Association held its annual fall meeting in the Massachusetts Historical Society Building at Boston on Saturday, October 16, 1915.

A discussion of "The Definition of the History Requirement for Entrance to College" was opened through the summarizing by Miss Margaret McGill, of the Newton Classical High School, of the replies to a questionnaire which had been sent to the various members of the association. Mr. Roy W. Hatch, of the Dorchester High School, Prof. George M. Dutcher, of Wesleyan University, and others continued the discussion. An informal vote resulted in showing an almost unanimous opinion in favor of a fuller definition of the field of history in secondary schools, the feeling being that such fuller definition would be equally of value for courses not having college preparation as their ultimate aim.

The association also recorded its approval of "The teaching of civics separately from, instead of in connection with, the course in American history, with the hope also that such a course in civics would be eventually recognized by an examination in the subject by the College Entrance Examination Board."

The annual election of officers took place with the following result: President, Mr. Philip P. Chase, Milton Academy; vice-president, Prof. Charles R. Lingley, Dartmouth College; secretary-treasurer, Mr. Horace Kidger, Technical High School, Newton; additional members of the Council, Prof. H. M. Varrell, Simmons College; Miss

Blanche Leavitt, Rogers High School, Newport; Prof. John O. Sumner, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Miss Harriet E. Tuell, Somerville High School.

Prof. R. M. Johnston, of Harvard, was the guest of the association at the luncheon following the business meeting. As a result of his persistent refusal to serve longer, Mr. Walter H. Cushing, of Framingham, closed a service of sixteen years as secretary-treasurer of the association. Prof. E. Emerton, of Harvard, voiced the appreciation and thanks of the association for the valuable work which Mr. Cushing had rendered, and presented him in behalf of the association with a token of its esteem.

IOWA ASSOCIATION.

The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers will meet on November 4 and 5 in connection with the State Teachers' Association. The following program has been arranged:

Thursday, November 4, at 2 p. m., "The Preparation of the High School Teacher of the Social Sciences," by Principal J. E. Marshall, of Council Bluffs; "The Place of Modern European History in the High School Program," by Mrs. Miriam Woolson Brooks, of Des Moines; "Is There Any Satisfactory Method of Combining Economics and History in the High School?" by Prof. L. B. Schmidt, of Iowa State College. Discussion to be participated in by Mr. Bruce Mahan, of Iowa City; Miss Clara M. Daley, of Iowa State University, and Mr. B. F. Asquith, of Council Bluffs. This session will be followed by a dinner, an informal business meeting, and a discussion of the welfare of the society.

Friday, November 5, at 9 a. m., address by the president of the society, Mr. Thomas Teakle, of Des Moines; "South America as a Field for Study and Research," by Prof. Paul F. Peck, of Grinnell College.

Friday, November 5, at 2 p. m., "The Progress in Socializing History," by Dean Guy Stanton Ford, of the University of Minnesota; "What Should the Average High School Do with Government in Its Curriculum," by Superintendent Aaron Palmer, of Marshalltown. Discussion led by Prof. C. H. Meyerholz, of Iowa State Teachers' College.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The fall meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will be held at Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, November 26 and 27, in connection with the meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. The general meeting will be held on Saturday morning, November 27, at which the subject for discussion will be "The Place of Modern History in the Secondary Schools." The principal paper will be presented by Prof. William E. Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania. In the afternoon a historic pilgrimage will be taken to Germantown. Information concerning the meeting can be obtained from the secretary, Prof. Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

A meeting of the American Historical Association was held in California, July 20 to 23. Some of the sessions were held at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition; others in the city of San Francisco, and others at Leland Stanford, Jr., University and the University of California. All of the papers presented bore in some degree upon the history of the Pacific or of Panama, and furnished a portion of the program of the Panama-Pacific Historical Con-

gress, in which two other societies, the American Asiatic Association and the Asiatic Institute, also took part. Separate sessions were devoted respectively to the history of the Philippine Islands; to the history of the Northwestern States, British Columbia and Alaska; to Spanish America and the Pacific; to the exploration of the Northern Pacific Ocean and the settlement of California; to the history of Japan and Australasia; and to the history of New Mexico. A joint session with the California History Teachers' Association discussed the desirability of a fuller definition of the college entrance requirements in history. The papers throughout the meeting were of a remarkably high order of merit. Liberal and cordial hospitality marked all the arrangements for the entertainment of the delegates; and an international character was given to the meeting by the presence upon the program of delegates from Spain, Japan and Canada. A volume containing the papers presented at the Panama-Pacific Historical Congress, and including those of the American Historical Association, will be published later.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW.

The October number of the "American Historical Review" contains a varied group of articles. An interesting account of the Pacific Coast meeting of the American Historical Association is contributed by the managing editor, Dr. J. Franklin Jameson. The influence of the Black Death in England upon the wages of priests is treated by Bertha H. Putnam, who shows that in some cases the wages rose to double their rate before the plague, and that ecclesiastical potentates sought ineffectually to keep them at the lower scale. Prof. Edward S. Corwin seeks the "French Objective in the American Revolution," and finds it in the following contemporary French line of reasoning: "That France was entitled by her wealth, power and history, to the preponderating influence in Continental affairs; that she had lost this position of influence largely on account of Great Britain's intermeddling; that Great Britain had been enabled to mingle in Continental concerns by virtue of her great naval strength, her commercial prosperity, and her preparedness to maintain Continental subsidiaries; that these in turn were due in great part to her American colonial empire, and especially to the policies controlling her trade therewith; that America, become independent, would be an almost total loss from the point of view of British interests; that this loss would mean a corresponding diminution of British power; that since the two were rivals, whatever abased the power of Great Britain would elevate the power of France."

Prof. Charles W. Colby sketches "The Earlier Relations of England and Belgium," covering the period from 1789 to 1830. Mr. N. W. Stephenson contributes "A Theory of Jefferson Davis," in which he holds the view that the Confederate president was by nature and training a "Southern Nationalist" called upon to lead a states' right movement. The number contains a group of interesting communications, the usual notes and news items, and twenty-two formal book reviews, of which an unusually large proportion, thirteen, is devoted to works on American history.

In the August "Atlantic" is the fifth of Gamaliel Bradford's Union Portraits—Edwin M. Stanton—which is by far the most sympathetic study of Lincoln's Secretary of War that has yet appeared. The problem with Stanton, as Mr. Bradford sees it, is to find how a man so thoroughly disliked and apparently objectionable, could get the most important administrative position in the country and hold it through the greatest crisis in American life, since he

was merely a clever practical lawyer with no political standing and with very little executive experience.

The author does not fail to consider Stanton's temperament and personality, but in these he finds no justification for the latter's appointment. This appointment was due to his really fine qualities which Lincoln recognized, and was able to use to the utmost. Rather than the depth of emotion, sympathy and tenderness which so largely characterized him, it was his enormous capacity for work, his method, system and genius for organization, his enormous driving energy which thrust itself right on through obstacles and difficulties, and which to a large extent overbalanced his lack of moral courage, which Mr. Bradford says is the secret of his achievement.

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PROF. HENRY JOHNSON, Teachers College, Columbia University, Chairman.

PROF. FRED. M. FLING, University of Nebraska.

MISS ANNA B. THOMPSON, Thayer Academy, South Braintree, Mass.

PROF. GEORGE C. SELLERY, University of Wisconsin.

PROF. ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT, Vanderbilt University.

DR. JAMES SULLIVAN, Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

ALBERT E. McKINLEY, Ph.D., Managing Editor

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(Signed) ALBERT E. McKINLEY.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 30th day of September, 1915.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN, Notary Public.

CORRELATION OF AGRICULTURE WITH HISTORY.

"Correlating Agriculture with the Public School Subjects in the Northern States" is the title of the Bulletin No. 281, of the United States Department of Agriculture. The Bulletin shows how the interest in agriculture may be preserved during each month of the school year, and how it may be correlated with the several subjects in the school curriculum for each one of these months. The study is the joint work of C. H. Lane, Chief Specialist in Agricultural Education, and F. E. Heald, Assistant in Agricultural Education. Teachers of history may be interested in the following extracts, showing how this correlation is made with history.

SEPTEMBER.

Consider the agricultural, industrial and social facts connected with the period in history which a class is studying. Look up in various history texts the story of corn in the United States; also have pupils inquire into the farm history of your section. (See Bowman and Crosley's "Corn," Chapter I, and Montgomery's "The Corn Crops," Chapters I and II.) Trace the history of the potato in reference books and readers. Do not destroy the plan for history lessons, but adapt topics to this plan. Where local histories are not printed, both tradition and scrap files of old newspapers will be helpful.

The suggestions under both history and geography are intended for the reading and inquiry by the pupils, to be followed by class-room discussion. These topics may be divided among the members of the class. Many school history texts have separate chapters on agricultural, industrial and social development, and others take up these matters as a part of each epoch. Nearly every modern geography devotes much space to soils, crops, animals, the food supply, and farming as an industry. The public library usually has many helpful reference books on travel, invention, industries, as well as histories and geographies. The supplementary geographical readers and texts in history, physical geography, etc., loaned by the nearby high school will give ample reference texts. Sample copies of text-books are usually found at the school. Personal inquiry will discover other sources of information.

OCTOBER.

Have pupils inquire into the history of grain and fruit development in this country, especially the crops now grown in club work. Note the effect of the crops and the methods of raising them on the history of this country and the great national issues. As examples, notice cotton and tobacco in the South, grain and meat in Central States, dairying and diversified farming in New England. Trace the effect of the growth of cities on the type of agriculture in different sections, especially in supplying milk, garden truck, etc. Show how the free grant of rich lands led to careless farming because it was supposed their fertility was inexhaustible. Trace the growth of the work of the National Government and the State Government in encouraging good farming and in controlling pests and diseases. It is not to be expected that one class will develop all these topics. Select those adapted to the section and to the available reference books. Review the history of the development of harvesting machinery in the United States.

NOVEMBER.

Have pupils find out where the different varieties of poultry originated and trace their introduction. Numerous poultry books give this information. Look up stories of fowls in history, as "The Geese that Saved Rome." Inquire into the introduction of fruits into the section and how they have been improved. In like manner, trace the history of methods of marketing the local produce. What effect have the transportation facilities had on the development of the county and State? Many texts in geography and history give this. Find how different European countries have affected American agriculture by furnishing live stock, plants, methods and labor. Trace the history of Thanksgiving celebrations.

DECEMBER.

Write to a dairy association for information about the history of dairying for the State, the story of modern scientific dairying, the Babcock test, the separator and clean milk. Trace the prodigal farming methods of the past and show how these must be modified in the near future. Find what great Americans have been reared on the farms. Show how the farmer must have great influence in the affairs of the nation; also the necessity of his being well informed and broadly educated. Find the effect of seed selection and milk testing in sections which have tried them.

JANUARY.

Trace the development of the lumber industry in the State; the growth of the movement against deforestation and related conservation movements. The State forester has probably issued helpful information. Explain why early wasteful methods were used. Refer to great historical forests. Inquire into the history of the section regarding fertilizers and concentrated feedstuffs. What crops are now sold to buy these, and does it pay? Look up in State and local histories and stories the winter experiences of pioneer days, and find how self-supporting the farm was. What modern methods are improvements? Are any of them the reverse?

FEBRUARY.

Have pupils look up (in reference books at home or in the library) the original home and the historical place of each of the crops to be raised in club or project work, recording the native land and the date when each became available for human food. Trace also the modern improvement. How are new vegetables brought into use? How many have been domesticated during the last century? What vegetables popular elsewhere are never raised here? Why?

MARCH.

Discuss the following topics in class after pupils have used reference books, local histories, and other texts: (1) Food supply and progress. The influence of transportation facilities. Such books as Brigham's "From Trail to Railway Through the Appalachians," are helpful. (2) Local food supply and markets during early history. (3) The crops and industries as influencing the attitude of different States on great national issues. (4) Americans have invented and developed much machinery for raising and utilizing farm crops. Why? What machines? There are numerous books on inventions, including such as Forman's "Stories of Useful Inventions." Observe how man power in giving way to machine power in America faster than in Europe.

APRIL.

Develop the history of legislation intended to assist and encourage agricultural education, beginning with the Morrill Act in national legislation. (See the Circular on Federal Legislation relating to these topics, from the Office of Experiment Stations, United States Department of Agriculture.) Bring this study down to the present, and show how State and Nation attempt to instruct in agriculture in schools and colleges, and also on the farms. Show all the forces which are co-operating to help educate the young farmer and to assist him in other ways. Compare the history of the diminishing number of birds with that of increased loss from insect pests. Look up statistics on this topic.

MAY AND JUNE.

Develop the history of methods of plowing, cultivating and harvesting; the improvement of hand tools, followed by the substitution of machines. Refer to books on inventions and those on the industries. Show how much this development has meant to the country and how it has modified not only the method of work, but also the distribution of crop acreage and the types of interest. Davenport's "Domesticated Animals and Plants" will help.

Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Most readable is the sketch of the parliamentary career of John Bright by Right Hon. George W. E. Russell, which appeared in "The North American Review" for October. Bright is considered as a "modified Quaker," and the author goes far toward proving the former's own statement that his "life was in his speeches."

The Phi Beta Kappa address delivered by James Ford Rhodes, June 21, 1915, at Harvard, "Lincoln in Some Phases of the Civil War," appears in the "Harvard Graduate Magazine" for September. Mr. Rhodes deals mainly with Lincoln's mistakes, from the Mason-Slidell case through the war. He points out that Lincoln's many faults were military, but that he rarely if ever stumbled in politics.

The last number of the "Asiatic Review" (August, 1915) contains an interesting article on the "Ancient History of Persia" by Lieut. Colonel P. M. Sykes, author of a history of that country. The article begins with an outline of the little that is known of the kingdom of Elam, and its capital, Susa, the home of the earliest civilization in that region. The story of the various conquests, migrations, and later, kingdoms to the age of Cyrus, contains much interesting information not usually found in the histories of Persia.

The September number of the "Fortnightly Review" gives interesting pictures of the deep piety of the Russian Poles, as well as of their intense sufferings since the war began, in William F. Bailey's "Glimpses of Russian Poland To-day."

"A Personal Impression of General Botha," by Roderick Jones, in "The Nineteenth Century" for September, gives an interesting glimpse of the personal magnetism and charm of this man of affairs in South Africa. It is a study of his political career rather than of his military achievements.

Pedro Jevenois' analysis of the Spanish military problem in the "Nuestro Tiempo" for August, deals not only with the economic and military situation in his own country, but gives an interesting comparison of Spain's resources with those of other European countries.

In the "Rivista d'Italia" for August, G. Natali discusses the geography of Italy in the first half of the nineteenth century.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart's essay on "American Historical Liars" ("Harper's") is richly illustrated with the mis-statements and inaccuracies of American history. These *lies* assume three shapes, the "lifted" material, forged documents, and the capture of a choice page of previous writers.

Lincoln G. Valentine's article on "Meddling with Our Neighbors" in the October "Century" is a spirited defence of President Wilson's Central American policy.

The concluding number of "Union Portraits" which Gamaliel Bradford has been contributing to the "Atlantic" since July, is a remarkably appreciative study of Samuel Bowles, the leading Union journalist of the early 60's.

A notable defense of Italy's rejection of the Triple Alliance is Henry Dwight Sedgwick's article on "Italy and the War" in the current number of the "Yale Review." This alliance was undertaken by her simply to secure and safeguard the peace of Europe, and when the other members disregarded this aim, then Italy's obligation to them ceased. Italy's three great problems, the Adriatic, the Mediterranean, and that of the defense of her northern frontiers, are also discussed at length.

"The School Review" for September contains a most thorough study of English parish education and its reflection in the American colonies by Carl Russell Fish, in an article under that title.

In "The Outlook" for October 6, Edward I. Bell begins a series of three articles on Mexico with a study of Carranza. The author has been a newspaper man in Mexico for many years, and his statement that Carranza has ruined Mexico by his criminal methods and can never save her by re-establishing justice and good order and political stability should receive consideration, if not acceptance.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

SUTCLIFFE, ALICE CARY. Robert Fulton. True Stories of Great Americans Series. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. xvii, 195. 50 cents.

This biography depicting the career of one of our great inventors, written by his granddaughter, will be found suitable reading for grammar school grades, about the sixth, or will be found satisfactory for the high school classes. It has the earmarks of careful research, and the story of Fulton's life is told with a vivid detail that makes it entertaining as well as instructive. Nor is it overburdened with detail, but quotations from Fulton's letters which give just the insight desired are not dry or tiresome reading. Just at this time it is interesting to the readers of this little volume to know that Fulton appears to have been more attracted by the possibilities of submarine boats for war purposes than by steam navigation, though it was the latter which he brought to success through the assistance of Robert R. Livingston. The submarine idea was spurned by the French government as impracticable, and by the English government as inhuman. His career as an artist is dwelt upon at some length in this narrative, and may be regarded as the time when the inventor was finding himself. Let us hope that more attention will be given to the study of the lives of the men who have contributed to our material well-being, even if it is at the expense of the hero worship of our political idols. H. M. HENRY.
Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

JORDAN, DAVID STARR, AND JORDAN, HARVEY ERNEST. War's Aftermath, a Preliminary Study of the Eugenics of War. Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914. Pp. xxxi, 103. 75 cents.

This little book includes an introduction, a poem, "In the Wilderness," and a short chapter on "War's Aftermath in Macedonia," by David Starr Jordan, with a longer account of "War's Aftermath in Virginia," by his colleague. The work of the distinguished Chancellor of Stanford University consists in a denunciation of war in general and of the present European war in particular. He

gives some facts regarding the shifting of racial populations in the Balkans as a result of the two recent Balkan wars, and brings out the suffering caused by those changes.

In investigating this subject, the authors and their associate, Prof. Edward Benjamin Krehbiel, studied conditions and records in two counties in Virginia and one in Georgia, and sent out a questionnaire with thirty propositions to many prominent and able southern men. The authors have "considered chiefly the biological elements, especially those related to eugenics and race progress." "The historical and statistical phases of the subject will be treated later by Professor Krehbiel from government records. Professor Jordan shows first the great loss of life during the Civil War among the young men. When he tried to compute the losses of different classes, however, using the records of the three counties, he at once found that it was impossible to reach any satisfactory conclusion. The plan was therefore adopted of formulating thirty propositions which were sent out to the surviving Confederate officers and other men of intelligence, for criticism and comment."

Some of the thirty propositions are only indirectly connected with the social results of the war, and many apparently have nothing to do with the "eugenics of war." Opinion among those who were consulted was practically unanimous that the leading young men enlisted first, that the war took chiefly the physically fit, yet that the losses of the strong in battle were balanced by the losses of the weak in camp. Although practically all agreed that "the flower of the people" was lost, about half believed that "the men of the highest character and quality" did not lose more heavily than "men of inferior quality." In spite of the fair, scientific treatment of this subject, it may be questioned whether the material presented fully warrants the author's conclusion, which he expresses in these words: "The theoretical argument for reversed selection seems beyond question. The actual facts concerning our Civil War and the events which followed yield no direct countervailing evidence. We must, therefore, decide that the war has seriously impoverished the country of its best human values." Possibly any difference of opinion might arise from a lack of clear definition of the word "best," and a lack of agreement among the contributors concerning the use of the word. Certainly the evidence does show that, in the opinion of all contributors, "those who 'fit' the most, survived the least," that "for the war as war, there was no redeeming feature, no benefit to anyone, not one word to be said," and that "the South is better by far for the spread of education, for the willingness to work, for the loss of slavery, for the maintenance of the Union, and for the development of business." Students of American history are indebted to the authors for light thrown on a difficult subject, the social results of war.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School, California.

JOHNSON, ROSSITER. Captain John Smith. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 194. 50 cents.

This little book is one of a series issued under the general title, "True Stories of Great Americans." The story follows quite closely Smith's own accounts of his life and adventures. It is not critical, because the book is intended for young readers. The writer is inclined to accept Smith's word almost at face value. About one-fourth of the space is given to the story of the hero's adventures before he came to America. There are six illustrations, four of which are portraits of Smith and Pocahontas, being repro-

ductions of monuments and old prints. The style is, on the whole, simple and adapted to the prospective readers of the book.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

NIDA, WILLIAM L. City, State and Nation. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1914. Pp. x, 331. 75 cents.

The growing demand for text-books that represent the newer, more practical ideas in the teaching of civil government has called forth a number of books of which this attempt to carry out in the class-room with seventh, eighth and ninth grade pupils a genuine training in citizenship is an excellent example. It is in three parts, as its title forecasts, and recognizes at once the triple division of the governments in the United States—that great stumbling-block in the civic road of the foreign-born citizen.

Of its 307 pages, 210 are devoted to the city, thus placing the emphasis for young pupils where it rightfully belongs, viz., on the study of the community of which the child is an immediate citizen. In these first twenty-four chapters the most practical problems in city life, the streets, water supply, disposal of all forms of waste, the trees, the housing conditions, the public health, the library and parks are dealt with. The young pupil is led to find the most fruitful topics of his new study in the things that constantly touch his daily life. In bringing so vividly to mind this vital relation of civics to the daily life of every person, whether citizen or alien, Mr. Nida has performed the most valuable part of his service to teachers and students of civics.

Parts II and III, the state and the nation, are treated very briefly, and much supplementing from outside sources is necessary to give pupils any fair idea of the importance of these divisions of our complex government.

Nevertheless, the plan of the text-book is admirable, its treatment fresh and stimulating. This little book cannot fail to help perplexed teachers of civics who are eager to grasp every new suggestion that offers light and comfort in the teaching of this most difficult yet vital subject of citizenship, particularly as applied to community problems.

MARY LOUISE CHILDS.

Evanston, Illinois, Township High School.

PICKARD-CAMBRIDGE, A. W. Demosthenes and the Last Days of Greek Freedom. 384-322 B. C. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1914. Pp. xxiii, 512. \$1.50, net.

Demosthenes is the subject of the last volume of the series, "Heroes of the Nations." The author, a fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, published in 1912 a translation of "The Public Speeches of Demosthenes." That he knows the authorities for this period most thoroughly is shown by the chapters on Greek history, the full chronological table and the profuse notes.

He writes, however, not as an historian, but as an English classical scholar. To say that he employs history to throw light on the ancient text may hardly be fair, but at any rate he does not select the salient events and subordinate the details to them. Instead he gives an almost year-by-year record from 404 to 322 B. C. in which petty squabbles between politicians and states stand out in the same light as the events of real importance and the efforts of men who amounted to something. There is little, if any, interpretation of these events.

To teachers who can interpret historical facts for themselves, not to immature pupils, this book will prove

profitable. The biographical chapters, and those on the obstacles that stood in Demosthenes's way both in Athens and in other Greek states, as well as those showing the ability, power and unscrupulousness of Philip, are the best. Not every one will accept the evaluation of the statesmanship of Demosthenes. A brave figure, also a wise one, to the author is the orator who well deserves our admiration for the courage with which he contended against Macedonia in pursuit of his ideal. Here the author shows himself an Englishman with the English view of keen sympathy in the struggle for independence and the supremacy of the city-state rather than with the German view of a national federation under Macedonia. He is also English in that he does not quite understand why the Greeks did not develop a government like the English government, which in his opinion seems the only form acceptable to a free people.

There are some good maps and twenty-nine excellent illustrations of persons and scenes connected with Demosthenes.

VICTORIA A. ADAMS.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

CURTIS, EDWARD S. *Indian Days of the Long Ago*. New York: The World Publishing Co., 1914. Pp. x, 221. \$1.00.

This work by one who has had twenty-five years' acquaintance with Indian tribes is an attempt to recite the life among the Indians in a language adapted to the mental capacity of the boys and girls. A narrative of an Indian boy's growth from boyhood to manhood and the events in his life is made the background for a description of the life and habits among the Western Indians. The style is simple and yet not childish. The book is replete with illustrations, numbering in all 200. The pictures are reproductions of Mr. Curtis' own photographs or drawings from these photographs. The book can be heartily commended for supplementary reading.

GUEDALLA, PHILIP. *The Partition of Europe. A Text-book of European History, 1715-1815*. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1914. Pp. viii, 312. \$1.10.

The title of this book suggests its character—it is mainly an account of international politics in the period. Emphasis is laid on political and diplomatic history. The social and economic side is not omitted, but is given little space. The author has the gift of clear and concise statement of essentials, especially in interpreting the causes and meaning of events. This added to the brevity and clearness with which he treats the events of a complicated period will commend the book to students who desire a useful summary, possibly for review purposes. In the opinion of the reviewer, the book is, however, not very well adapted for reference reading by American high school pupils.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

MITCHELL, SYDNEY KNOX. *Studies in Taxation Under John and Henry III*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1914. Pp. 407. \$2.00.

This is a detailed study based upon careful research in both printed and documentary material. The period covered is one of transition in the form of taxes as well as in the method of levying and collecting them, and the work is, therefore, of especial importance for those interested in

that particular field. After a short introductory chapter, the author takes up in detail in chronological order the separate taxes levied during the two reigns. This phase of the work covers eight chapters, in each of which a certain period is discussed, and in each case of taxation, "the occasion of the levy, the authority by which it was taken, the incidence, the assessment and collection, and the amount" are considered. Then follows a long summary chapter in which the author discusses the development of the great council and its relation to the levying of taxes, as well as the general conclusions concerning the different taxes already described.

Though it is a very good piece of work for those interested in the field, it is too detailed and technical for the general reader or the high school pupil. The first and last chapters with the short summaries of the material of each of the other chapters can be used to advantage by those who do not care to follow the details of each individual levy. The bibliography would have been appreciated by those who will make the most use of the book.

CHARLES A. SMITH.

The University of Wisconsin.

BLAND, A. E. *The Normans in England (1066-1154)*. Bell's English History Source Books. London: G. Bell & Sons, 1914. Pp. 118. 35 cents.

In reviewing this volume of Bell's English History Source Books, the writer entertains mixed feelings of pleasure and doubt. It certainly is a pleasure to note the several series of sources which the English are now putting out, such as Morgan and Balley's (Blackie & Son), Innes' (University Press, Cambridge), and this of Winbolt and Bell. And in regard to this particular series, one is pleased to note that this present volume is the nineteenth to be published. As it contains somewhat over a hundred well-filled pages of source material, the total already amounts to well over two thousand pages. A further advantage lies in the fact that for a very small sum the teacher can put into the school library those volumes that may especially appeal to him without purchasing the parts for periods in which he may otherwise be well provided. The doubt creeps in—and in view of the many excellent points of the volume before us it seems almost ungenerous to note it—when one notices the disregard of any apparatus for properly evaluating the material presented. Indeed, the editor even shows a certain carelessness in this respect that disturbs one. In the "Note to this Volume," Mr. Bland writes: "The sources from which the extracts in this volume have been drawn are contemporary, with the exception of the 'Dialogues de Scaccario.' . . ." We should hesitate, however, to term William of Malmesbury a contemporary for the comparative customs of the Saxon and Norman periods. Nor would we altogether approve of the inclusion of "The Statutes of William the Conqueror" under that heading. As to the first item, Morgan and Balley have done better, including in their corresponding volume a brief Analysis of Sources wherein William of Malmesbury is mentioned as living 1095-1143. As to the latter, in Stubbs' *Select Charters*, whence our editor drew his material, we are distinctly told that it comes from "a manuscript written during the reign of Henry I," and "contains what is probably the sum and substance of all the legal enactments actually made by the Conqueror."

Perhaps the reviewer is over-zealous in this particular; at any rate, he wishes to commend the volume and the series most heartily.

HENRY L. CANNON.

Leland Stanford, Junior, University.

MORRIS, CHARLES. *Famous Days and Deeds in Holland and Belgium*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1915. Pp. 348. \$1.25, net.

He who loves tales

"Of most disastrous chances,
Of moving accidents by flood and field,
Of hair-breadth 'scapes i' the imminent deadly breach,"

will not find time heavy during the reading of this stirring account of the romantic deeds of the doughty heroes of the Netherlands.

As the title indicates, the book does not deal with the entire history of the Low Countries, but with the more interesting episodes in the records of the Netherlands peoples. After a rapid survey of events from the earliest known period to the beginning of the sixteenth century, the author devotes the bulk of the work to the dramatic feats of siege, broil and battle, which mark the eighty-year struggle of the Dutch for independence, and the long, weary wars which followed with Louis XIV. "The Inquisition in the Netherlands," "The Avalanche of the Image Breakers," "William the Silent," "The Duke of Alva and the Council of Blood," "The Ocean Overwhelms the Land," "The Beggars of the Sea," "How Leyden Was Saved by the Sea," "How an Army Waded to Victory," "The Dutch Win Empire on the Sea"—these are some of the chapter headings indicative of the character of the work. A summary of notable events of the last two hundred years, including a final chapter on the recent ravaging of Belgium by Germany, concludes the book.

The work is well written; it contains sixteen full-page illustrations, is clearly printed on good paper, and is attractively bound. The inclusion of a good map of the Netherlands would greatly enhance its value. As a popular account of certain incidents in the history of the Netherlands, it is well-worth while, and is heartily recommended for supplementary reading in high school and academy; indeed, many chapters are within the compass of and will be enjoyed by children in the upper grades.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

BARRON, CLARENCE W. *The Audacious War*. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. xvi, 192. \$1.00, net.

Of the making of books about the great war, there is indeed no end. In this volume, we have "a business man's view" of "the commercial causes, financial aspects, and the cost in men and money for the first six months" of the struggle.

The author places the responsibility for the war squarely on the shoulders of Kaiser Wilhelm II, concerning whose mental responsibility, however, he has doubts. From the beginning of the reign of the present Kaiser, world-conquest by war has been his program for Germany. Only by the aggressive use of the sword could Germany be made great on land and sea, and the way be cleared for German expansion and German commercialism. For years, then, we are told, the Kaiser steadily proclaimed peace to the outside world, while with diabolical cunning he "as steadily inculcated war and the principles of war into every avenue of German thought and philosophy" (p. 154). Finally, it was the Kaiser who dictated the terms of the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia so as to make them impossible of fulfillment, and then cunningly slipped away on a water-trip with the fastest German cruiser behind him, that he might come rushing back and cry, "Peace, peace" while he fenced off every peace proposal from effectively reaching Austria" (p. 157).

Perhaps the most valuable portion of the book is the treatment of the financial operations of the war. In a series of illuminating chapters, the stupendous financial undertakings of France, England, and Germany are described, and their significance explained. Military phases of the war receive scant attention.

To the author, the outcome of the war is not a matter of uncertainty. Germany cannot win. The Allies with their sea-power can reach round the world for men, munitions, supplies and financial assistance. Germany "can get no more men, no more gold, no more outside war supplies," but must be self-sustaining in all things. The growing scarcity of gold, copper, gasoline and rubber might, indeed, not force her to sue for peace, but the tremendous human sacrifices she and her ally are making—there having been not less than 3,000,000 Austro-German casualties in the first six months of the war, we are told—are bound to bring defeat in the end.

The author is optimistic and prophetic about the future. The present world-struggle is to be the last. "From this war must follow a world federation and international citizenship" (p. 186). An international organization, with naval headquarters at Heligoland, perhaps, possessing "power to make decrees of peace and enforce them, and with insurance of powers above those of all dissenters" can establish the peace of nations forever.

The above summary is a commentary in itself on the merits of this book. The work is guiltless of footnotes, references, index or other marks of scholarly achievement. The style is popular, breezy, gossipy, journalistic.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

"A Bulgarian Diplomatist" analyzes the situation in Bulgaria prior to her entering the war in an article entitled, "Bulgaria and the Allies," in "The National Review" for September. He considers Bulgaria's vacillating policy to be the result, not of her duplicity, but of her perplexity and of the complex problems she was facing.

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